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THE OMAHA CONFERENCE.

FIRST DAY—THURSDAY.

On Thursday, the 25th of August, in the Opera House at Omaha, Nebraska, at eight o'clock in the evening, the Fourteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction was called to order by Mr. J. A. Gillespie, chairman of the local committee of arrangements. After prayer by the Rev. Dr. Doherty, addresses of welcome were made by Governor Thayer, Mayor Broatch, ex-Governor Saunders, Judge Thurston, and Mr. E. Rosewater, which were responded to by Messrs. Wines and Sanborn, on behalf of the Conference. The exercises were enlivened by some most agreeable music by the Musical Union Orchestra and a double quartette of male voices. There is apparent, however, a feeling on the part of the Conference, that these opening exercises are too protracted and consume too much time. The probabilities are that at Buffalo, next year, they will be "conspicuous by their omission!"

President Giles, of Wisconsin, then took the chair and proceeded to deliver the annual address, which was devoted to an exposition of the aims and methods of the organization. It was well written and well received, but we have not space for more than one quotation from it, as follows:

> We have reached the period of transition, when our organization ought to pass from the merely formative stage to one of a more exact and systematic character. So far, we have simply been trying to grow as a conference, to mass together a body of men and women such as would command attention and create a national interest in charities and reforms, to get together and compare our experiences, that we might do our work more efficiently. This vantage ground we have reached. We have gathered our forces and created public opinion. Shall we so organize ourselves as to be able to guide and command the interests awakened?

SECOND DAY—FRIDAY.

The Conference assembled in the hall of the Exposition Building, at nine o'clock, A.M.

The following committees were appointed:

On Business—Messrs. Elmore of Wisconsin, Shurtleff of Massachusetts, Sawyer of Pensylvania, Johnson of Illinois, and Wells of Minnesota.

On Permanent Organization—Messrs. Letchworth of New York, Dana of Minnesota, Garrett of Pennsylvania, Sanborn of Massachusetts, Byers of Ohio, Wines of Illinois, and Gillespie of Nebraska.

A special committee was also named to report suitable action concerning the death of T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of England, consisting of Messrs. Letchworth, Brinkerhoff, and Wines.

The floor was then given to the Standing Committee on Reports from States, which occupied the whole of the morning session.

Reports from States.

CALIFORNIA.—The legislature has appropriated $125,000 for the purchase of a site and the erection of a hospital for the chronic insane. There are over forty free kindergartens in the State. The Pacific Coast Conference, last December, was a very successful meeting. The defective, dependent, and delinquent classes of California number not far from 14,000, and cost the State last year $1,250,000.

COLORADO.—A political change in the State administration resulted in the displacement of Gen. Cameron, warden, and the Rev. Mr. Brooks, chaplain, of the penitentiary, who have been succeeded respectively by Mr. C. S. Hoyt and the Rev. L. J. Hall. The legislature passed bills for protection of children under fourteen years of age from being employed in coal mines, factories, etc.; providing for the care of incorrigible girls in institutions already established, until the State can provide a home for them; and punishing cruelty to children. The only legislation bearing on prison management was an act prohibiting the leasing or contracting of convict labor. The support given to private charities will compare favorably with older States. Denver reports a Ladies' Relief Home for women and children, a Free-Bed Association, an Orphanage, at present caring for thirty-one children (from three to twelve years of age), a Temperance Home, a Newsboys' Home and Reading-room, and two hospitals; besides Catholic institutions,—two hospitals, the House of the Good Shepherd, and one orphanage. The Cottage Home at Colorado Springs, controlled by the State Women's Christian Temperance Union, is a most worthy charity, giving a home to a class despised and shunned even by those who wrought their ruin. Leadville reports systematic charity work. Pueblo supports three hospitals (one Catholic) and the Ladies' Benevolent Union Home. This society covers every branch of city aid work,—friendly visiting among the poor, giving shelter to street waifs, caring for the feeble-minded, etc.

CONNECTICUT.—The General Assembly will hereafter meet biennially, in years bearing an odd number. The last Assembly authorized the State Board of Charities to inspect boarding-houses for children; raised the "age of consent" to fourteen years; passed a ten-hour law for women and children under sixteen years of age; provided for the appointment of an Inspector of Factories; authorized county commissioners to transfer insane prisoners from jails to the State Hospital for the Insane; passed a habitual-criminals bill; provided for the retention of insane convicts after the expiration of sentence; amended the temperance laws so that liquor cannot be sold or given to paupers; and continued to the next Assembly a bill for an act to abolish town almshouses and establish district almshouses in their stead. The appropriations for charitable and correctional uses for the ensuing years (including $47,728.24 deficiency) aggregate $1,009,228.24.

DAKOTA.—The population of Dakota, which fifteen years ago was scarcely 10,000 (whites), is now over 500,000. The territory has two asylums for the insane, one at Yankton and one at Jamestown, which now provide for 300 patients. There are 50 pupils in the Deaf-Mute School at Sioux Falls. There are two penitentiaries, at Bismark and Sioux Falls; also a Reform School, not yet eompleted, at Plankington. The growth of the system of public charity has been marvellously rapid, and it is hoped that the territory will soon have a State Board of Charities.

DELAWARE.—Some meetings have been held in the interest of prison reform, but no substantial progress made. It was formerly the custom in Newcastle county to transport the prisoners from the jail at Newcastle, where they are confined, to Wilmington, on the cars, and march them, innocent

and guilty alike, in a chain-gang through one of the principal streets of the city to the court-house for trial. Within the year, they have secured a modern police van in which to convey them from the jail to the place of trial. The same county has also had an ambulance, of the latest and most convenient pattern, constructed for use in connection with the county hospital. No legislation worthy of notice has been enacted in relation to charities or corrections, except some important amendments to the law governing the Delaware Society to Protect Children from Cruelty.

District of Columbia.—A thorough examination of the charities, penal and reformatory institutions of the District, made by the Charity Organization Society, shows that the various agencies and institutions enumerated, provide shelter for 4,526 men, women, and children, and treat or provide for 8,741 persons in their homes, aside from governmental out-door relief and the relief furnished by churches or mutual-benefit associations. The Government Hospital for the Insane has built a dining-hall and a work-shop, and is now laying the foundations of a separate building for 60 convict insane. The new commissioners have succeeded in enforcing the Sunday liquor law. The Red Cross Hospital was one of the leading features of the National Drill last May, and admirably illustrated the practical working of the Red Cross Society.

Illinois.—The total biennial appropriations at the last session of the legislature, for charitable and correctional uses, aggregate $2,987,456.07. A new institution, the Working Home for the Blind, was created. The "age of consent" was raised to 14 years. Laws were passed for the protection of the chastity of virtuous women, also acts punishing boycotting, black-listing, and seditious speech or publications. The inmates of the State charitable institutions number 5,426, and of the penitentiaries 2,224; the estimated number of prisoners in jails is 1,000, and of paupers in almshouses 5,000. The growth of insanity is appalling—1,526 adjudged to be insane by the county courts in twelve calendar months. The inmates of private charitable institutions are estimated at 2,000 or 2,500, and the annual cost of their maintenance at $400,000. Mrs. V. C. Ohr, superintendent of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, has been succeeded by Mr. H. C. De Motte. A new industrial school for boys has been established at Norwood Park, in Cook county. The financial condition of Cook county has led to the temporary abolition of the County Agent's Office for out-door relief, in the city of Chicago.

Indiana.—The last General Assembly accomplished little. An investigation of the State Prison South, at Jeffersonville, revealed cruelty, fraud, and mismanagement of such a character as to result in a change of trustees and wardens. The Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, and the School for Feeble-minded Children, which were associated together at Knightstown, have been separated, and the latter (which is now occupying for a short time the buildings designed for the new hospital for the insane at Richmond), has been located at Fort Wayne. The total annual cost of maintaining 4,000 inmates of the State charitable and penal institutions is $600,000, or $150 per capita. Part of this is reimbursed to the State. The sum received for convict labor under contract more than pays the cost of the two State prisons. Governor Gray has inaugurated a system of granting paroles to prisoners, instead of pardons. The three new hospitals for the insane, provided for by the act of 1883, are nearly completed; they have a capacity of 1,127 patients, and cost (without furniture) $1,273,086. The number of county homes for children increases every year. The Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis is doing good work; and the Flower Mission has opened a training-school for nurses in the City Hospital. The visitation of county jails and almshouses in Indiana has been voluntarily undertaken by the State Board of Health.

Iowa.—There has been no recent session of the legislature, and therefore there is not much to report. A new wing has been added to the Hospital for the Insane at Mount Pleasant, and another detached ward built at Independence. The Industrial School at Eldora has put up a new family building. Mr. Wyckoff has been succeeded, as superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, by —— Rothrock. At Mitchellville, Mr. C. C. Cory and his wife have been appointed superintendent and matron of the Girls' Industrial School.

Mr. S. W. Pierce has been recalled to the superintendency of the Orphans' Home, at Davenport, General Litchfield having resigned. The new Soldiers' Home will be ready for occupancy before the close of the year. The departments for insane convicts and for women in the Anamosa penitentiary are still in process of construction. The Iowa Prisoners' Aid Association goes steadily forward in its good work. Among the new private charities may be mentioned the Home for Aged Women at Cedar Rapids, and W. C. T. U. Home for Friendless Children at Des Moines. An organization of the "associated charities" has been effected at Davenport and at Clinton. The total number of paupers in almshouses in this State is said to be 1,745; and the total amount expended by the counties for both in-door and out-door relief, $545,546.49.

Kansas.—The charitable institutions of Kansas are governed by a single board of five trustees, for whose per diem and expenses an appropriation of $5,000 per annum is made. This board has no central office, but meets at each of the institutions once in every month. The statistics of crime and pauperism in this State are so imperfectly collected, that their publication would only serve to mislead. In the State charitable institutions there were, on the 30th of June last, 1,531 inmates. Provision has been made for the care of an average number of 1,850, during the next two years, by the appropriation of $760,370 for maintenance and repairs. A State Reformatory, on the Elmira plan, is in process of erection at Hutchison. The penitentiary at Leavenworth contains about 900 prisoners, who are principally engaged in mining coal, but also manufacture wagons.

Louisiana.—The local Conference of Charities at New Orleans is growing stronger and more efficient.

Maryland.—The largest part of the charity work of Maryland is done by the city of Baltimore. The city's estimate for the support of the poor during the next year, is about $234,000. This city is somewhat peculiar in its methods: it farms out various classes of indigent or dependent people to private charitable societies or institutions, and pays a stipulated price per capita for their care. There is no out-door relief in Baltimore. The contract system of convict labor has been abolished in Maryland, and nothing substituted for it; consequently the prisoners in the penisentiary and county jail are idle. A prisoner became insane for want of occupation. The Charity Organization Society of Baltimore wants better legislation for the suppression of street beggary. The Maryland Prisoners' Aid Society does most of the inspection of prisons, and does it well.

Massachusetts.—The legislature passed an insane hospital districting act, and an act for the separation of the criminal from the non-criminal insane. Three laws of general interest have been enacted in regard to prisons. The first provides for giving employment to prisoners discharged from the State reformatory, and to investigate the histories of prisoners; the second is a habitual criminals act and the third abolishes the contract-labor system. In regard to charities, two acts of importance have been passed; the first of which makes a more effective provision for the removal of children from city almshouses and placing them in families; the second provides more stringent regulations to prevent the sending to State almshouses of persons who are too sick to be so removed with safety. The total ap-

propriation for this year to cover the expenses of the three State prisons was $336,000 ; for the State charitable institutions, seven in number, $454,900; and for the administration of the State board of lunacy and charity, $59,150. There has apparently been no increase of pauperism in Massachusetts during the year.

MICHIGAN.—The report read from this State consisted chiefly of a list of measures introduced in the General Assembly, which failed to pass. Laws were enacted providing for the arrest and care of children who are on the road to crime, though not yet criminals ; for the taking of children from the custody of persons unfit to have the charge of children and placing them in proper homes ; for surrounding with safeguards, children brought from other States and placed in homes in Michigan, and the placing of them is made subject to the same conditions which exist in placing the children from our own State public school at Coldwater. The law providing for a Board of County Jail Inspectors was amended so as to make the Judge of Probate the chairman (the old law provided none).

Three of the insane asylums received appropriations for building cottages to hold fifty patients each, for chronic cases, to cost about $300 per capita. The number of patients in the four insane asylums is 2,104. There are about 400 insane in the county poorhouses, including those in the Wayne County Asylum, the only county asylum in the State. The county agents under the State Board report 665 arrests of juvenile offenders, of whom 218 were sent to the reform schools, and the rest otherwise disposed of. They also report 230 homes found for children from the State public and reform schools, and that they visited, during the year, 525 of the children placed in private homes.

MINNESOTA.—The legislature created a State Reformatory for young men, at St. Cloud (in which contract convict labor is prohibited) ; and a Soldiers' Home, at the Falls of Minnehaha. In addition, it levied a tax of one tenth of a mill for the relief of ex-soldiers and their families, to be administered by the trustees of the home. A third hospital for the insane was established and located at Fergus Falls ; and an appropriation of $50,000 made for additional provision for the insane at Rochester. The number of patients in insane hospitals in this State is now 1,600 ; with the new facilities for caring for them, the hospitals will have a total capacity of 2,300. The Reform School is to be removed from St. Paul to Red Wing. An appropriation of $70,000 was made for additional buildings for the State Public School at Owatonna, and another of $45,000 for the feeble-minded. The aggregate appropriation for penal and charitable institutions for the ensuing two years was $1,480,180, of which $1,059,680 is for maintenance. The legislature passed a high-license law—$1,000 and $500.

MISSOURI.—The legislature appropriated for eleemosynary institutions $502,727, and for the penitentiary $600,000, both for two years. In the absence of a State Board of Charities, these institutions are inspected by a legislative committee, appointed by the governor, in vacation. Their report shows 1,232 inmates in the State establishments for the insane, the deaf, and the blind, and 932 in the St. Louis insane asylum and poorhouse. The last General Assembly created a training-school for minors, also an industrial home for girls.

NEBRASKA.—Dr. H. P. Mathewson has been superseded by Dr. W. M. Knapp as superintendent of the insane hospital at Lincoln. A new hospital has been built at Norfolk, on a tract of 320 acres given to the State by the citizens of Norfolk, under Dr. E. A. Kelly, superintendent. A third hospital, for incurables, has been provided for by an appropriation of $75,000 for a building to be erected at Hastings. A cottage for boys has been built by the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, and an appropriation of $10,000 made for a new kitchen and dining-room. A new main building, boiler-house, and laundry for the Institute for the Blind have been partially completed. The legislature created a Soldiers' Home, under Capt. John Hammond, superintendent, which is to be built at Grand Island, on condition that the citizens give 640 acres of land for a site. [An abominable condition. —Ed. RECORD.] It also established an Industrial Home for Unfortunate Women and Girls, for which a location has not yet been selected. The name of the State Reform School at Kearney was changed to "Industrial" School. The penitentiary, which contains 334 prisoners, has been re-leased for ten years. An effort, which failed, was made to create a State Board of Charities. In the absence of such a board, the "Women's Associated Charities" is doing effective work. It is now laboring for a Home for Dependent Children. The Women's Christian Association has purchased a building and is about to open a boarding-house for young working-girls. The "Tenth Street Mission" is doing good work and has as adjuncts an Industrial School and a Helping-Hand Society.

NEVADA.—There is no organized, systematic effort made in the line of charities in this State.

NEW JERSEY.—The Council of Charities and Correction appointed by the legislature has an appropriation of only $1,000, and has attempted little. The State Board of Health is able to make many reforms by drawing the attention of officers and others to defects. The State Charities Aid Association looks after the jails and almshouses, and is in other ways creating public sentiment. But progress in this State seems slow.

NEW YORK.—The value of property held for charitable and correctional purposes by the State, by counties, by cities, and by incorporated benevolent associations was appraised, October 1, 1886, at $52,138,192.45. Three fifths of this property is in the hands of private corporations. The income of these institutions, during the year, was $13,362,659.61, and their expenses $12,027,990. The number of inmates at the close of the year was 62,335, of whom 13,538 were insane. A new State Asylum for the Insane has been created at Ogdensburgh, and provision made for 500 additional patients at Poughkeepsie, and 100 at Buffalo. An appropriation of $300,000 has been made for the removal of the Asylum of Insane Convicts at Auburn to a farm, and the erection of buildings suitable for the criminal insane. The State Reformatory for Women at Hudson has been opened, and is now in successful operation. The accommodations of the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark have been extended, so that it now has room for 250 inmates. An appropriation was made to rebuild the girls' department of the State Industrial Scool at Rochester, which was consumed by fire last year. The several acts relating to the New York State Reformatory at Elmira were revised, consolidated, and amended by the last legislature, which will doubtless facilitate its work and increase its usefulness.

OHIO.—The State of Ohio during the past year has maintained its four State asylums for the insane with but few changes. There are in these institutions, at present, about 3,500 inmates. There are in the county hospitals or infirmaries of the State about 1,570 inmates, the majority of whom will be accommodated at the new hospital being erected at Toledo. In addition to these, there were also 390 epileptics in the infirmaries. There are thirty county homes for children in the State, with from 50 to 150 inmates each. The system has proved very satisfactory. The State benevolent institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb, blind, feeble-minded youths, and soldiers' and sailors' orphans have during the past year accomplished fair results in their respective departments of education and training. These four institutions accommodate a daily average of 1,970 pupils. The State prison has worked satisfactorily. The labor of the prisoners let during the year has been on the piece-price plan and fair financial results attained. The discipline of the prison has been humane. The prisoners are well fed and clothed. In addition to the present organized institutions of the State there is now in process of erec-

tion an Intermediate Penitentiary at Mansfield. The State is also engaged in the erection of a Home for Ohio Soldiers, located at Sandusky.

OREGON.—The State institutions are controlled by a board of trustees composed of the Governor, Secretary of State, and State Treasurer; and, as none of our former State officials were re-elected at the general election held one year ago, there has been an entire change in the board of trustees. This has resulted also in a complete change throughout the Asylum for the Insane and the State Prison. We have new superintendents, wardens, nurses, guards; and, in fact, the new administration has made a clean sweep, which has been a matter of sincere regret, especially in regard to the Asylum for the Insane. At the legislative session last winter the following new laws relating to charities and corrections were enacted: (1) an act regulating the commitment of the insane, which permits the county judge, after examination with one or more physicians, to make commitment; (2) an act defining vagrants and providing a punishment for vagrancy by a fine of from $20 to $250, or imprisonment at hard labor, with ball and chain, from ten to twenty-five days; (3) an act to prevent the sale of liquors to minors; (4) an act providing for the maintenance of kindergartens as a part of the common-school system; (5) an act regulating the sale of opium, chloral, etc. Besides these, two others may be mentioned,—one to regulate divorces, and a very lax law it is indeed, and another to provide for the extension, by a new wing, of the Insane Asylum. The Board of Pardons was abolished. We attempted to get a Reform School established and a State Board of Charities, but were unsuccessful in both matters. We shall try again.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The last legislature appointed a joint committee, of three senators and four representatives, to report at the next session whether any changes in the law are necessary to secure greater system and uniformity in the management of institutions owned or aided by the Commonwealth. Appropriations somewhat larger than usual were made to the State institutions. Contracts have been signed for the completion of the south wing of the Riverside Penitentiary in Allegheny county: when finished, this prison will have a capacity of nearly 1,200 convicts. The new Reformatory at Huntingdon approaches completion, and a law was passed for its government somewhat similar to that of the Elmira Reformatory. The State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Erie has been in successful operation for a year, and additions are to be made to it, whereby its capacity will be doubled. Four hospitals were established by the legislature for injured persons in the mining regions. Two new hospitals have been opened for medical and surgical cases, at Sayre and at Bradford. Steps have been taken for the establishment of an additional institution for the blind at or in the immediate vicinity of Pittsburgh; for this purpose $46,000 has been secured in the form of private subscriptions. At the county jail in Pittsburgh a matron has been appointed. The Allegheny county jail and the new wing of the Allegheny county workhouse are finished and occupied. A new jail on plans approved by the State Board is building in Indiana county. The building for the insane in connection with the Philadelphia almshouse, which was destroyed by fire, has been replaced by one erected on improved plans, and is now open for the reception of patients. A Home for Crippled Colored Children has been recently opened in Philadelphia. Several new Hospitals and Homes are building in Philadelphia and its vicinity. The Women's Homœopathic Hospital is sufficiently advanced to allow of its being occupied by patients. Mr. George W. Starr, of Erie, and Col. Henry M. Boies, of Scranton, have been commissioned as members of the State Board of Charities in place of Mr. Charles J. Harrah and Dr. John K. Lee; and Dr. Lee has been reappointed in place of E. Coppée Mitchell, Esq., deceased.

VIRGINIA.—The Southwestern Lunatic Asylum has been completed and filled up, much to the relief of the jails of the different counties, where many poor lunatics had been confined, for want of room in the asylums. The governor has expressed his sense of the need of a State Inspector for the prisons and public charities of the State; and, with his help, there is reason to hope for the appointment of such an officer at the next meeting of the legislature.

WASHINGTON.—The legislature appropriated $100,000 for a new insane asylum at Fort Steilacoom, and $60,000 for a new penitentiary at Walla Walla. The contract system of convict labor has been abolished.

WEST VIRGINIA.—A new private hospital is to be opened in the mining regions of the Kanawha valley, in the autumn, which will owe its existence to the energetic efforts of the Rev. Dr. Peterkin, the Protestant Episcopal bishop. Money has been subscribed in Wheeling for a Home for Friendless Women. Charges were preferred, at the last session of the legislature, against the management of the State Lunatic Asylum at Weston, and of the State Penitentiary at Moundsville. In the former case, the charges were not sustained; but in the latter, the evidence was such as to compel the removal of the warden, on the ground of cruel punishments.

WISCONSIN.—Three new county asylums for the chronic insane have been constructed during the past year; one is now building, and another in process of enlargement. The number of inmates in State and county charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions, other than jails and poorhouses, is 4,256. The amount appropriated by the legislature for current expenses of the State institutions for two years was $481,000, and for the State School for Dependent Children such sum as may be necessary. To this institution an appropriation of $65,000 was made for a main building and two cottages: no other appropriations were made for permanent improvements. Many changes were made in the laws affecting charitable and penal institutions. All plans for poorhouses, jails, and county asylums must be submitted to the Board of Charities and Reform for approval. Basement jails and police stations are prohibited. The county asylums are placed under boards of trustees. Counties must levy a special tax, if necessary, for the relief of disabled soldiers, so as to prevent their being sent to poorhouses. The State is to pay to the Wisconsin Veterans' Home, incorporated in the name of the Grand Army of the Republic, three dollars a week towards the subsistence of each inmate of this new institution. This Home will be on the cottage plan, with a series of two-roomed cottages to be the home of two veterans, or a veteran and his wife, or two soldiers' widows: for the law provides for soldiers' wives and widows as well as for the soldier himself. A more efficient tramp act was passsd. The "age of consent" was raised to fourteen years. Inebriates may be committed to an insane asylum. A bill for an act creating a Custodial Home for Idiots and Feeble-Minded passed both houses, but was vetoed by the governor, who prefers the county system of care of this class. A commission was appointed to report to the next legislature on the convict-labor question.

WYOMING.—The new Hospital for the Insane at Evanston will be completed early in 1888. A School for Deaf-Mutes and the Blind, for which there is at present no pressing need, has been established at Cheyenne. For a number of years Wyoming convicts have been sentenced to the penitentiary at Joliet, Illinois, where they have been maintained free of expense to the Territory. Since the prohibition of contract convict labor, in that State, all territorial prisoners are sentenced to the county jails, which are, in consequence, greatly overcrowded. There are no poorhouses in the Territory; the county commissioners grant temporary relief to the destitute; we have no permanent paupers. The permanently disabled are usually returned to their friends in the east. At Cheyenne, the county maintains a hospital for the sick; and there is also one at Laramie City, under the direction of the Catholic sisters.

The States and Territories not included in the above list made no report to the Conference.

An Agreeable Diversion.

In the afternoon, no session was held. The citizens of Omaha furnished carriages and invited the delegates to a drive, which lasted from two until five o'clock.

State Boards of Charities.

At night, the order of business was the report of the standing committee on State Boards of Charities, by Mr. Sanborn. This was an elaborate paper, making thirty-one pages in print, the result of a careful study of the one hundred volumes of reports issued by these boards in the United States since 1863. We give some extracts only from it.

The first State to establish a Board of Public Charities was Massachusetts, which created such a Board in the year 1863, and has continued it in existence, with various modifications of its powers and duties (generally extending them), until the present time, when the existing Board is known as the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. The example of Massachusetts was followed in 1867 by the States of Ohio and New York; in 1869 by Illinois, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island; in 1871 by Michigan and Wisconsin; in 1873 by Connecticut and Kansas; in 1882 by Minnesota; and in 1883 by New Jersey. The State of Missouri also, for a short time, maintained a tentative Board; but neither there nor in North Carolina was the work continued for any length of time. In Ohio, the Board was abolished for a few years, but reëstablished in 1876; and in Connecticut the Board first established was practically inoperative for several years, until its reorganization in 1881. These Boards have been established with no uniformity of powers and duties, but according to the supposed needs of each State. In two States,—neither of them very populous at the time these Boards were created (Kansas and Rhode Island),—the State Boards are practically governing Boards for the State charitable and correctional establishments. In the States of Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York, these Boards do not inspect the prisons, though in Massachusetts the Board of State Charities from 1863 to 1879 had this power of prison inspection. But prison inspection is a duty of all the other State Boards, while in Kansas and Rhode Island there is also the power of prison control and management. In Massachusetts and Pennsylvania the summary powers of a lunacy commission are possessed by the State Boards (in Massachusetts since 1879, in Pennsylvania since 1883); but, in all the States, the inspection of insane asylums is an important part of the State Board's duties. Certain powers of administration in regard to the support of the insane or other dependents at State expense are given to the Boards of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin, and of course exist in full force in Kansas and Rhode Island. The supervision of immigration is given by the national government to the State Boards in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and perhaps other States, while in New York the supervision of recent immigrants is divided between the Emigrant Commissioners and the State Board of Charities. In Illinois, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and perhaps other States, the Board of Public Charities has some control or influence in determining the expenditure, by appropriation or otherwise, of public money for the dependent and delinquent classes. Other powers of an executive character, too various to be here enumerated, are given to certain Boards. All of them possess the important power of inspection, supervision, and advice, not only with regard to institutions maintained by the States as such, but also in regard to municipal, local, and private charities.

Such being, in general terms, the powers of these Boards in the above-named States, which now contain a population estimated at 27,000,000, it is worth while to see what results have been attained or observed in these communities, which contain nearly half the present population of the United States.

These results may be stated under the following heads: (1) Insanity—its Increase, Treatment, and Future; (2) Pauperism in General—its Increase or Decrease, and the Cost which it Involves; (3) The Care and Protection of Poor Children; (4) Crime—its Increase or Decrease, Methods of Repression and Reformation; (5) Immigration as Affecting Insanity, Pauperism, and Crime; (6) Economical Results of State Charitable Administration.

Insanity.—The attention of the State Boards of Massachusetts, Ohio, and New York was early drawn to the subject of insanity in those States, and the provision needing to be made for its treatment with a view to recovery. For this there were various reasons, some of which are now more distinctly seen than they could be in the years immediately following the Civil War. That great national event temporarily checked the increase of insanity in the United States, by diminishing immigration, destroying human life, and providing occupations for persons of unbalanced minds to such an extent that their insanity did not manifest itself at the time, as it afterwards did. The cessation of hostilities and the restoration of industry to its usual channels invited a large immigration, and led in a few years to a great apparent increase of the insane, for whom public provision must be made. Moreover, the asylums and hospitals for the insane were, from the nature of the case, managed by persons of special experience and professional skill, who had brought the subject of insanity prominently before the public mind in the States mentioned and had become recognized authorities as to its treatment, so that the first State Boards could find in these establishments materials for observation and problems of administration which hardly existed elsewhere. At that time, however (now twenty years ago), the opinion was almost universal that insanity was a disease easily curable, provided its treatment commenced early, and the effort of specialists and legislatures was to secure this early provision for hospital treatment, no matter at what expense; while it was also maintained that the chronic insane, if not curable, yet had possibilities of recovery, which must be favored by maintaining them in costly hospitals among the curable cases. Gradually, and to a great extent in consequence of the essays of Dr. Pliny Earle on the curability of the insane, it was ascertained that insanity in general was by no means easily curable, and that its apparent increase was mainly due to the fact that so many persons were attacked, while so few recovered or died in a given time.

To illustrate what is meant by the increase of insanity, as observed by the State Boards, we will submit a few figures, taken chiefly from the reports of these Boards in early and recent years:

States.	Population in 1870.	Insane Persons Reported.					Population in 1886.
		1868.	1869.	1870.	1885.	1886.	
Massachusetts	1,457,351	1,870	1,875	1,965	3,862	4,040	2,000,000
New York . .	4,382,759	4,346	4,599	4,830	12,833	13,538	5,600,000
Ohio	2,665,260	2,256	2,552	2,431	5,119	6,536	3,300,000
Pennsylvania .	3,521,951			2,404	5,640	5,923	4,600,000
Illinois . . .	2,530,891	2,670	2,830	3,002	6,900	7,300	3,600,000
Wisconsin . .	1,054,670	355	455	786	2,370	2,610	1,600,000
Rhode Island .	217,353		125	200	400	590	300,000
Michigan . .	1,184,059			600	1,893	2,353	1,900,000

The increase of insanity by reason of immigration is doubtless shown by the statistics which the State Boards collect in some regions, particularly in the State of New York; but it is hardly possible to ascribe to immigration mainly the strange accumulation or increase of insanity in Wisconsin in recent years. The gain of Wisconsin in population has not been very great in these years, and by no means wholly from immigration; yet the increase of the insane has been proportionately as large in Wisconsin as in New York, where hundreds of thousands of immigrants land every year.

So great an accumulation of the insane, most of whom must be supported at the public cost, and in many of the States as paupers, has necessarily led to a modification of their treatment. They are no longer regarded, in any of the States where Boards of Charities are established, as needing in all cases hospital treatment ; and in several of these States chronic asylums, either large or small, have been gradually provided for the insane poor, who do not need hospital treatment, and yet are not suitable cases for poorhouse wards or for private families. Some of these chronic asylums, as at Willard in New York, have become very large. Others, as in the counties of Wisconsin and the cities of Massachusetts, remain small ; and it is not proposed greatly to enlarge them. Other chronic asylums, like that of Rhode Island at Cranston and those of Massachusetts at Bridgewater, Tewksbury, and Worcester, are about the size formerly recommended by the American superintendents for hospitals ; and these are not likely very much to increase in size. But when the chronic insane are retained in the same hospitals with recent cases,—as, for example, in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois,—these hospitals themselves become very large, like those in Norristown, Pa., Indianapolis, Ind., and Kankakee, Ill. The latter, indeed, seems capable of indefinite growth, and, as it enlarges, practically separates the chronic from the recent cases,—not only in buildings detached from each other, but specially assigned to different classes of the chronic insane. The same extension and classification, in detached buildings under the same management, seem to be favored in Ohio and elsewhere ; and this is one of the forms of improved classification and treatment which has sprung up under the direction of Boards of Charities.

In Wisconsin, however, a method diametrically opposite has prevailed since 1881, which also appears to be taking root in other States. Instead of enlarging the existing hospitals or providing for villages of the insane, like those at Kankakee and Willard, the Wisconsin State Board has procured the establishment of numerous county asylums, with a capacity seldom exceeding a hundred in each, which receive from the State hospitals and distribute by counties throughout the State the chronic insane who had been sent from the same counties to the hospitals for treatment in former years. Fifteen such county asylums now exist in Wisconsin, with a population of above twelve hundred ; and the number is every year increased by one or more counties, which adopt the system in preference to maintaining their insane in the large hospitals or in poorhouse wards.

Such asylums not only do not injure the State hospitals, but benefit them in several ways : first, by removing the dead weight of chronic insanity, which is so discouraging a feature in the ordinary hospital ; and, next, by stimulating improvement in hospital management, through a comparison with the new asylums. Similar results are observed in Massachusetts and New York since the chronic insane began to be removed to separate asylums, about twenty years ago. An extension of this policy has lately been adopted in Massachusetts by introducing the Scotch system of boarding the chronic insane in private families, with satisfactory results thus far.

Pauperism.—There is some difficulty in tabulating statistics upon pauperism, because in certain States most of the insane are reckoned as paupers, while in other States only a portion of them are so considered. And the same statement applies to the number and cost of maintaining poor children.

The experience of all the Boards of Public Charity, with the possible exception of Illinois and Michigan, from 1863 to the present time, has been the same in respect to the number and cost of the public poor as compared with the population of the State where they are aided. Except for the insane, who are everywhere constantly accumulating beyond their due ratio to the whole population, there has never been for a period of five years any increase in the proportion of paupers to population ; while for longer periods there has generally been a decrease in the number of the poor as compared with the whole population, although there may have been an augmented cost of relieving them. The cost of out-door relief, however, ordinarily decreases as the administration of public charity becomes more efficient ; and this decrease has been noticed and greatly promoted by the Boards of Public Charity in most of our States. In Massachusetts, however, the cost of out-door relief has considerably increased since 1864, because the number of persons receiving this form of public charity has been purposely enlarged by the State authorities, who were unwilling to incur the great outlay which would otherwise have been necessary in building poorhouses, hospitals, schools for poor children, and other such establishments ; and in Massachusetts the cost of in-door relief, except for the insane, has hardly increased at all during the past twenty years, beyond the natural growth of the State population.

[Here follows, in the report, a series of tables of pauperism in different States, for a term of years, to which we can only refer by title.—Ed. Record.]

The work of the State Boards everywhere has been to systematize information of this kind, to collect it more accurately, to classify the poor better, and to provide for their relief in a greater variety of ways, according to the need of the many classes of poor persons mingled together under the general name of paupers. This improved treatment, based upon improved classification, has naturally gone forward fastest in the oldest States and those containing the largest city populations ; and it has been materially promoted by those rapidly growing organizations—independent of the State Boards, but co-operating with them—which are best known as Associated Charities. Yet the labors of all these Boards and of all the co-operative agencies, whether private or public, have hardly been sufficient to check the growth of pauperism in a country which, like ours, receives annually such armies of the poor from European countries, and at home permits intemperance to breed so much pauperism, especially in cities. Upon the whole, however, in spite of these unfavorable influences, pauperism does not seem to be growing in the United States out of proportion to our growing population, except as insanity adds its hopeless burdens to the other misfortunes of the poor. And a great movement, which must ultimately check and diminish pauperism,—the increased effort for educating and elevating neglected and dependent children,—has, within the twenty years covered by this report, assumed proportions and developed methods and results which are every way gratifying.

Poor Children.—At the time when the State Boards of which we are speaking were first established, (from 1863 to 1870), poor children in most of the States were associated in asylums and poorhouses and other public establishments with the adult poor, often infirm, insane, incurably diseased, or vicious in life,—an association most unfortunate and contaminating for the children themselves, unfavorable to discipline in these establishments, and an obstacle to the proper training and education of the young. That this state of things no longer exists is due mainly, in the States which maintain Boards, to the early and persistent efforts of these Boards to classify the poor and vicious, and to place the children, whether guilty of petty offences or not, in such relations that, when grown up, they could enter the general community uncontaminated in character and uninjured in reputation by the actual circumstances of poverty or by the stigma attaching to pauperism and crime.

The State which, from its large population, its position between the seaboard and the great lakes, and the number and character of its cities, has been compelled to pay the greatest attention to the protection of poor children, is New York.

In two of the States that early established Boards of Public Charity—Massachusetts and Michigan,—Mr. Charles L. Brace's system of collecting neglected and dependent chil-

dren into special schools, and sending them thence into family life into rural districts, was long since put in force as a part of the State administration. Even before the Massachusetts Board was organized in 1863, such a school, though a very imperfect one, was established in one of the State almshouses, at Monson; and it was one of the first tasks of the State Board in 1866–67 to give this State Primary School a better organization and the means of distributing its pupils throughout Massachusetts and the adjoining New England States. This school still exists, though with diminished numbers and some modifications during the twenty-one years since it was legally established; and it has done more good in the training of neglected children than any other State establishment in Massachusetts. Perceiving its useful character, but improving upon its imperfect material conditions, the State of Michigan provided for a similar school at the city of Coldwater in the year 1871; and the new buildings of this State Public School were opened in May, 1874, for about one hundred children. They now contain more than three hundred children; while hundreds have gone out from them to take their place in family life, and to be trained there for good citizenship. In some respects, this Michigan school differs from all other State establishments in this country, so that its managers are perhaps justified in saying of its establishment in 1874: "For the first time in history, a State undertook to secure the maintenance and education of all dependent children before they were ruined by evil influences." Yet this noble policy has not been fully carried out even in Michigan, where there still continue to be many children in the county poorhouses.

In all the States which have Boards, the number of children in poorhouses has been greatly diminished below what it would have been, had the laws on the subject remained as they were twenty years ago. The number of children committed under sentence to reformatories is in several of the States proportionately less than formerly; and in one State, Massachusetts, a system has been in force for twenty years, which prevents the accumulation of such children in reformatories, by providing that they may go from the courts immediately into families. This has worked well in the main, and has greatly reduced in number the inmates of the State reform schools for children.

Crime.—Although several of the State Boards have been expressly denied the general inspection of prisons—particularly those of Illinois, New York, and, since 1879, Massachusetts,—yet the connection of all these Boards with the reform schools and other establishments for the prevention of juvenile crime, and the intimate relation between crime and pauperism, have naturally led every Board to take notice more or less constantly of the startling increase of crime in the United States since the Civil War. They have also labored more or less directly, according as their relation to the prisons was close or otherwise, to promote measures of legislation and prison management which should lead to the reformation of criminals. The earliest State Board to take action in this matter was that of Massachusetts, which in 1865 reported at some length on the prison question, and urged that State to adopt a modification of the Irish convict system (or, as it is now called, the Crofton system), which was described at some length in this Massachusetts report. The result there was the establishment of a special Prison Commission in 1870, the opening of a reformatory prison for women in 1877 (managed upon the Crofton system, but with some improvements), and finally the establishment of a reformatory for men, with the indeterminate sentence, school instruction, and the other features of reformatory prison discipline, such as we see in its highest perfection at the Elmira Reformatory of Mr. Brockway, who was himself a member of the Board of Charities in Michigan until he was summoned to New York in 1876, to take charge of that model prison.

In Michigan, Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin, also, the Boards of Charities have been active in prison reform; and, in Ohio, the Board has succeeded, with the aid of Gov. Hoadly, in establishing the most complete prison system, in theory, which exists in the United States. And this system is advancing toward practical development. In Rhode Island, the State Board manages the prisons and reform schools with commendable success. In Kansas, also, the same result is aimed at, and perhaps secured. In Minnesota, the Board of Charities, though recently established, has brought the prison system into a degree of uniformity which is not yet seen in most of the older States.

In each State where Boards of Charity are active, they take of necessity a warm interest in the success of reformatories for young offenders; and these Boards have done much within twenty years to improve the discipline and management of these establishments, which ought to diminish crime more than has been actually seen of late years.

In another direction, the State Boards have labored to check crime by special measures—those, namely, which have been directed against vagrancy and the tramp nuisance. They have procured the passage of stringent laws, and with the aid of charity organizations in cities, have seen that these laws were enforced, so that tramping in several of the States has been materially restricted by this means.

Immigration.—Several of the State Boards have been for many years directing attention to this feature of our national life, particularly those of New York and Massachusetts, which, from their position on the sea-coast and their neighborhood to the British Provinces, early became aware of the mischief which unrestricted immigration is sure to bring. The Boards in other States gradually perceived these same evils, and united, five or six years ago, in urging upon Congress such action as was taken in 1882 to place immigration under the oversight of experienced officials, representing both the National and the State governments.

In Pennsylvania and in Massachusetts, the Boards of Charities have now, by contract with the Secretary of the Treasury, the whole supervision and disposal of immigrants under the national laws; but, in New York, an older Board, the Emigration Commission, has performed these duties, to the exclusion of the State Board of Charities, which, however, has for several years taken control of pauper immigrants, and sent many of them out of the country. It is eminently desirable that there should be but one authority in each State to deal with the delicate questions connected with immigration, and the authority to do this seems to belong more properly to a Board of Charities than to any other organization.

Economical Results.—In some of the States, a principal function of the Boards of Public Charity has been to prepare estimates and supervise or control the expenditure of charitable appropriations which the legislature makes annually or biennially. The Illinois Board, for example, has devoted much space in its reports to this subject; and the Minnesota Board, following the example of Illinois, has prepared elaborate forms of account and report, which provide for almost every exigency of expenditure in charitable institutions and prisons. Such forms and methods of accounting are very important; for the expenditures made by the public in the administrative departments of charities and correction are heavy at present, and constantly growing heavier. It may be assumed that in the States that now maintain Boards of Public Charity the cost to the tax-payers of the establishments and systems of relief, penalty, etc., which these Boards supervise, is now not less than $20,000,000 yearly, and may rise to $25,000,000.

Such being the case, it is evident that these Boards have a broad field in which to recommend, and in some degree to practise, a wise economy in expending the public money. They really control the payment of but a few millions out of these twenty or twenty-five; but, by precept and example, they may do much and have done much to abate extravagance and profusion. These faults show themselves not so much in the direct care of the poor (which is frequently

mean and inadequate) as in the architecture of insane asylums, prisons, almshouses, and other buildings, in which the poor are kept, the insane are treated, or the criminal undergoes his penalty. Against extravagance in these buildings, the State Boards of Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Wisconsin have specially protested; and in several of these States they have finally secured the erection of such buildings at a moderate cost and upon a more sensible plan of arrangement than formerly prevailed. In this way, several millions of dollars, in the aggregate, have been saved to the tax-payers; while a further economy has also been secured, in consequence of the arrangements being made simpler and the current cost of management being thus reduced.

In the expenditures which are not directly or even indirectly in the control of these Boards, much economy has resulted, in some of the States, merely from the introduction of a better system of accounts, which the periodical returns required by law to be made to these Boards have rendered necessary. It would be scarcely credible, were not the fact on record now for many years, with how much looseness the pauper accounts were formerly kept, and how imperfectly the summary of charitable expenditure by towns, cities, and counties was made up.

There are other ways in which the Boards in question have promoted economy, such as: the discouragement of excessive out-door relief; the early rescue of children from idle and vagrant lives or exposure to vice; the separation of one class of the public dependents from another, so that a smaller outlay will be necessary for the whole body of dependents, when due classification has been made; the removal from the State, or to relatives and friends within the State, of persons improperly chargeable to the community where they were found; and in many other ways.

Mr. Sanborn's paper was discussed by Messrs. Elmore, Letchworth, Brinkerhoff, Hart, Wines, Byers, and Garrett. The remarks of Mr. Hart, which were of a practical nature, showed the steps to be taken in the organization of a State board, and securing for it the approval and support of the people. Mr. Elmore, in his speech, confessed that he had very serious doubts whether the Wisconsin Reform School at Waukesha, of which he was for many years the president, had done any real good. He had more faith in the methods adopted by the Michigan State Public School at Coldwater. He expressed the belief that the boys and girls sent out from New York bring the poison with them and inoculate the whole country with it; they furnish recruits for the great army of tramps. General Brinkerhoff eulogized the non-partisan organization of the Ohio State Board, with the governor as an *ex-officio* member. Mr. Wines took issue with him on this point, and said that a non-partisan board had not prevented a partisan administration of the Ohio institutions. Mr. Garrett thought that State boards should be organized early in the history of new States, to prevent the growth of vicious charitable and correctional systems.

THIRD DAY—SATURDAY.

Saturday was chiefly devoted to a visit to Lincoln, the capital of Nebraska. The Conference took a special train to Lincoln, over the Burlington and Missouri road, and the delegates were driven in carriages around the town and out to the penitentiary and the insane asylum, in a long procession headed by a military band in a band-wagon. A pleasant incident of this ride was a visit to the Home for the Friendless, where a light lunch was served. On returning to town, an elegant and sumptuous collation was found to be awaiting attack, in the Skating Rink, which was prepared by the ladies of Lincoln, who did every thing that kind hearts could suggest to make us feel that we were welcome. After dinner, the Conference was called to order in St. Paul's Methodist Episcopal Church, which was well filled. There were more addresses of welcome by the Mayor, Gov. Thayer, and other prominent citizens. Mr. Sanborn was called for, who responded in a humorous vein, calling attention to the uncompleted State-House, and suggesting that from the appearance of the dome over the reservoir for the Insane Asylum, in an open field, he concluded that the convicts in the penitentiary must be employed in growing a dome for the State-House. To this sally Gov. Thayer retorted that he now understood how Massachusetts had obtained its dome on Beacon Hill; it had grown—he had felt sure that it never was made; and he promised that if the Nebraska dome, when completed, does not look better than the one in Boston, it shall be taken down and reconstructed. Mr. Sanborn had spoken of the lessee of the penitentiary as a "cultivator" (of domes), which led the governor to make some remarks somewhat apologetic, if not eulogistic, regarding the Nebraska prison system.

Convict Labor.

Gen. Brinkerhoff then proceeded to deliver the principal address of the afternoon, on convict labor. Among other things, he said:

Among the counts in the indictment against the contract system, that which has been urged more persistently than any other, and which seems to be the main reliance of our labor-union friends, is that it competes injuriously with free labor. A special committee of the Ohio legislature embodies these conclusions in the following statement: "The testimony shows that the contract system carried on in our penal institutions is directly responsible for a large percentage of the reductions which have taken place in the wages of thousands of our mechanics during the past four years. Nearly every manufacturer who testified before your committee attributed a large percentage of the reduction in wages to the system which enabled manufacturers who have prison contracts at cheap rates, to go into the markets and undersell them. There is little or no room for doubt as to the evil effect of this system upon the interests of free labor. It not only tends to pauperize honest labor, but it is, in a great measure, responsible for the crowded condition of so many of our penal institutions."

Now, if these conclusions are correct, then contract labor ought to be exchanged for some less objectionable system, if such can be found.

But are they true? Doubtless the testimony of the witnesses, as quoted, was honestly given, but it should be remembered that isolated opinions from a few towns and cities in a single State are of little value in determining the potential forces of trade and commerce in a continental nation like ours, and especially a nation within whose boundaries trade and commerce are as free as the atmosphere, and where, as in the atmosphere, any change of condition is immediately equalized by inflowing currents. Surely official statistics for the whole country are more valuable than individual opinions.

When we have the entire number of free laborers in any one industry, and the entire number of convict-contract laborers in the same industry, it would not seem to be difficult to form a reliable opinion as to the effect of one upon the other. Fortunately such statistics are now at command, not only in the census returns for 1880, but also in the annual report of the Commissioner of Labor for 1885. The general correctness of these statistics is indicated by the uniformity of their conclusions. The latter are the latest and most elaborate, but for the uses of this paper the former are the most available; and as the results are substantially the same, I take them as I find them, already digested and arranged.

The number of prisoners, all told, in 1880 was 54,495; of these, 16,583 were employed under contract labor; 8,025 under the public account system; 3,081 under the piece-price plan; 10,060 under the lease system; 10,882 were engaged in prison duties; 3,842 were idle or at school; 1,400 were sick; and 622 were manufacturing for the Department of Charities and Correction, New York City.

Of the total number of prisoners, however, we find that less than one half were employed in any mechanical industry, and less than one third were under the contract system; but for the sake of comparison we will consider that all prisoners in any mechanical industry were under the contract system, for in this way only can be estimated the possible strength of prison labor as a whole, in competition with free labor.

Thus arranged the figures are as follows,* and include in the column of free laborers youths as well as adults; and in the column of convict laborers the inmates of reformatories as well as prisons:

From these figures it is apparent, that the total amount of prison labor actually employed in productive industries in the whole United States amounts, at the farthest, to only 2½ per cent. of free labor employed in the same industries.

It should be borne in mind, however, that a large proportion of all prisoners are employed in the same industries inside that they were pre-

* See table at foot of page 89.

viously engaged in when they were outside ; and as the product of their labor inside cannot be greater than it was outside, how is it possible that their labor should injuriously compete with free labor?

It is a fact, which should also be remembered, that the producing power of convict labor is about one fourth less than free labor, so that the actual product of convicts of the United States is less than 2 per cent. of the total production of free laborers in the same industry.

That a variation of 2 per cent. in the productive powers of a country should be fraught with the direful consequences claimed is simply impossible, and we may as well, once for all, set aside this count in the indictment against prison labor as untenable, or at least of very little value.

Contract labor, as a competing factor against free labor, is no worse than any other system of the same producing power, and therefore this specific count against it must fail for want of evidence.

That there are other counts against it that are valid and sustained by the evidence, I verily believe, but to discuss them *seriatim*, in the time allotted for this paper, is impossible. Still, if we can apprehend and settle a few general principles, it would seem possible to arrive at a safe conclusion without much discussion.

In the first place, then, we must determine the object and purpose of prison labor. If it is simply to make money for the State and insure the self-support of our prisons, there is no question but contract labor, under existing conditions of prison administration, is the easiest and surest way of doing it. All that is required is to sell out the prisoners as the slaves of a contractor, and then back him up with lash and thumb-screw, so that he can pay his stipulated per diem with punctuality and dispatch, and the end is accomplished.

If, on the contrary, prison labor is to be considered mainly as a means for the reformation of prisoners rather than their self-support, then it is very clear that a system which has for its primal purpose the extraction from prisoners of all their working powers in physical labor, must in the nature of things be a serious hindrance to all efforts for moral and intellectual advancement.

It is true, we can imagine an ideal contractor who would operate his contract upon the principle of the golden rule and the sermon on the mount, but unfortunately the highest bidders for prison labor are rarely that kind of men.

It is true that the State might limit the working hours of prisoners, and devote the off hours to moral, mental, and physical culture ; but, unfortunately, with the average legislator, the greed of gain, or the pressure for self-supporting prisons is so great, that we have no examples in that direction, and if we had, it would be only a partial remedy for the evils inherent in the contract system. Experience and statistics seem to concur in the conclusion that if the reformation of the prisoners is to be the dominant idea in prison labor, (and surely it ought to be), then some other than the contract system must be adopted.

This conclusion is not wholly undisputed, but in the science of penology, as now accepted by its highest exponents, it is as clearly an axiom as any proposition of Euclid.

The systems proposed as a substitute for the contract system are various ; but practically there are but two available, viz.: The State-account and the piece-price plan ; but in the adoption of either of these systems no large success can be anticipated, unless at the same time a large advance over the average of American prisons is made in administration. Certainly, if politics are to rule a prison, the State-account system of labor should be kept out, for that system can only be operated successfully upon business principles.

The piece-price plan, as a connecting link between the contract and State-account systems, has some advantages over both of the others ; but it also requires a non-partisan business management in order to make it a success financially, or in a reformatory sense.

In fact, after all that is said and done, administration is more important than any system, and no system can be made efficient under an untrained inexperienced, inefficient management. Therefore the *sine qua non* of our prison systems of labor is efficiency of administration, and until that attainment can be made reasonably certain, the contract system is the best system.

The conclusion of the whole matter, therefore, may be briefly summarized :

(1) The contract system of prison labor, as a rule, is more profitable to the State, in dollars and cents, than any other ; but, on the other hand, for reformatory purposes it is more objectionable than any other.

(2) No change from the contract system should be attempted until the conditions for an improved administration shall be established by the abolition of partisan politics from the prison and the organization of the entire management upon the basis of integrity, capacity, and experience. Prison officers, like army officers, should have a special training for their work, and promotion should come solely through honorable and meritorious service.

(3) All the prisoners of a State should be classified, and each class should be assigned a prison of its own. In the prison set apart for those serving life sentences, which also include incorrigibles and convicts over thirty years of age, the contract system very appropriately could be retained entire, for there is no reason why this class of prisoners should be made a burden upon the tax-payers. In the prison set apart for young men under thirty years of age, and convicted of their first offence, the State account system, as a rule, would be found the best for reformatory uses, although the piece-price plan would sometimes be found equally available and more profitable in dollars and cents ; but under either system educational and technological training should have the larger consideration.

(4) In reformatories for boys and girls the idea of pecuniary profit should not be considered any more than in our public schools or colleges, and the system of labor adopted should be solely a part of an educational curriculum.

Legislators acting upon these principles will be in the line of safe precedents, and will be more likely than in any other way to obtain results satisfactory to themselves and useful to the State.

Form of industry.	Total number of citizens.	Total number of convicts.	Per cent. convicts to citizens.
Agricultural implements	39,580	284	0.7
Bolts and rivets	5,061	167	3.3
Boots and shoes	134,256	6,358	4.7
Boxes	17,400	55	0.3
Brick-making, quarrying	66,355	1,016	1.5
Brooms and brushes	8,778	1,786	20.3
Buttons	5,825	29	0.5
Carpeting	24,033	304	1.4
Chairs	10,575	3,313	31.2
Cigars and tobacco	53,297	659	1.2
Clothing	160,813	1,291	0.8
Cooperage	25,973	821	3.1
Foundry and machinery	110,351	157	0.1
Furniture	48,729	946	9.1
Hardware	17,201	215	1.2
Harness and saddlery	21,446	1,014	4.7
Hats	22,671	326	1.4
Hemp and jute	4,306	392	9.1
Hosiery and knitting	28,885	2,417	8.3
Lime-burning	4,570	218	4.7
Marble work	21,471	320	1.5
Printing	58,478	82	1.1
Railway cars	14,232	180	1.2
Saddlery hardware	2,815	536	19.0
Shirts and collars	25,687	684	2.6
Stoves and holloware	35,000	1,576	4.5
Tanning	23,812	87	0.4
Tools	13,679	248	1.8
Trunks and valises	4,534	25	0.5
Wagons and carriages	46,704	1,458	3.1
Whips	1,056	130	12.3
Wire work	4,459	208	4.6
Total	1,059,020	27,302	2.5

Several excellent addresses followed by various persons. That by Mr. A. O. Wright was especially good. Mr. Wines pointed out that the State of Nebraska is the only one, north of the Ohio River, which maintains the lessee system ; and that, instead of making that system a source of revenue to the State, it pays a bonus of forty cents a day to the lessee for each convict leased to him, all of which may be assumed to be profit, amounting probably to $50,000 a year. The effect of the lease system upon the prisoners he declared to be depressing and injurious, and expressed the opinion that in no prison that he had ever visited had he seen such a dejected set of countenances as in the Nebraska penitentiary a year or more ago, when he examined it pretty carefully.

There was no night session of the Conference on this day.

FOURTH DAY—SUNDAY.

The Rev. Edward Everett Hale, of Boston, had been engaged to preach the annual sermon, on Sunday morning, but, owing to the change of date, found it impossible to be present, and his place was supplied by the Rev. Dr. Dana, of St. Paul, who took for his text the words : "Go and do thou likewise." His sermon, which was printed in full in the *Omaha Republican*, gave great satisfaction to those privileged to hear it.

In the afternoon Very Rev. Dean Hart, formerly of London, but now of Denver, addressed the Conference on the secret of power in charitable undertakings, from the scientific and the Christian sides.

At night, a large audience assembled to hear the report of the standing committee on Our Duty to the African and Indian Races.

The Indian Question.

Mr. Garrett's report was in the following words :

The boasted cordiality with which America has welcomed the oppressed of every land, throwing open to them her gates, and endowing them with the rights of citizenship and equal rights, hardly extends to the aborigines on their own soil, nor to the Africans, whom we dragged in chains and slavery from their native land. From the unusual circumstance of the presence of the Indian in our midst, our nation owes a tutelary debt from which nothing can absolve it. It would be competent for a Christian nation to exclude by fundamental law, from the benefits of immigration and citizenship, all heathen people. But it is too late to exclude either the African or Indian. As to the Indians, the only question could be whether, as between them and the whites, the latter have a claim to the soil ; and as to the African, we have voluntarily watered and nurtured them until they number more than one tenth of the entire population. Yet as both belong to races intellectually inferior, undeveloped, and uncivilized, the United States owe it to themselves to spare no sacrifice which may be necessary to fit them for their rightful share in the administration of affairs. There are evidences of great capacity for improvement in both the African and Indian races. It is by no means certain that this capacity is not greater than is generally supposed, when placed under favorable conditions, and when fostered and stimulated by wise legislation.

There are two reasons for cultivating these races—the benevolent and selfish. From the benevolent point of view, our obligation toward these races is the greater because they cannot protect themselves against powerful rivals and opponents. There are those who would exterminate the Indians, and for that matter the African also, if they were not so numerous. It is perhaps enough to say of those who hold such ideas that they are inimical not only to Christianity and civilization, but to the human race. There have been advances in the humanitarian ideas in the last quarter of a century, and no considerations other than those of kindness to either of these races would have weight with the bulk of the American people.

Let the nation accord the African and Indian an equal chance, and a perfect opportunity to prove their fitness to compete with Caucasians ; it would be reasonable to give them odds, and then no charge of injustice could lie at our doors. If, with every chance, some of them fail, it is only what some of us do ; if some of them reach the highest places, we must give them credit for equality.

Where so large a percentage of the people of the State belongs to these races, it cannot be other than the interest of the country to educate them. As serfs, or hostiles, they are a burden ; as respectable citizens, an accession to the power and producing capacity of the country. We greatly need the masses of wage-earners, and it is of the utmost importance that we treat the seven millions of Africa's children as well as the quarter of a million of Indians, chivalrously, and offer them an even chance in the race of life. What is needed for these people is to give them a helping hand, educate them, aid them with capital, give them equal rights before the law, fairness in court and out of it, and full citizenship, with all that that implies. Let both races find their own level, with fair play and a good start, and if the level of either race is found to be low, no one can be blamed, nor can they refuse to take the place which God has given them. The interest of the country does not lie in the alienation of these races ; on the contrary, it lies, most clearly, in the direction of their perfect assimilation. The descendants of the North American and African savage races now in our midst should be cultivated by every means in our power into the nearest approach possible to the highest type of American citizenship. Among the strange experiences of migration and substitution of races there have been none vaster than this transfer from Africa to America, nor more complete than the displacement of the red man by the white.

Mr. Sanborn followed with a paper on the African question, from which we take an extract, as follows :

Having occupied this immense section of the earth, one of the first things our race did was to introduce another race, entirely foreign to this hemisphere, and comparatively unknown to a large portion of the eastern hemisphere,—the African. We forced them to come here and took them from barbarism and compelled their residence among us and have continued it until this time. By taking this race, a race entirely barbarous, and introducing it into the presence of a skilful, energetic, and at least half civilized race like our own, we have attempted to shorten one of the slowest, most difficult problems of the world's history. We have attempted to hasten the advancement of the savage race towards civilization, consequently at every step we have doubled the difficulties which nature herself created. If we look at the question in that light, I think we will be astonished, when we see what has been done towards the education of this race since the close of the Civil War. When we consider what our expectations were, even so short a time ago as 1860 or 1862, it is no wonder that we are astonished at our own success. We found at that time the great majority of this African race in a servile condition, which, although it was comparatively a mild form of slavery, perhaps milder than existed in Africa itself, was such a state of degradation, that almost any race of which we have any knowledge in history would have felt justified in compensating for the years of their slavery by rising in revolt against the masters who had enslaved them ; and one of the most remarkable things is the entire freedom of the African race from the sentiment of retaliation. The history of the Civil War shows that it was almost unknown. There our first difficulty was overcome. We did not have the horrors of a servile war in connection with the horrors of a civil war, which are themselves sufficiently great. We had this race then instantly thrown into a condition, not only of political freedom, but of political franchise. They were almost immediately admitted to the suffrage, and here again we had redoubled the difficulties that would naturally come in our way. That matter was forced on us by political necessity ; but the calm judgment of almost every one was against granting universal suffrage, but for the fact it was the only way for the political redemption of the south. It was, therefore, a servile condition of enforced ignorance. On account of sudden emancipation and sudden admission to political franchise, there was, on the part of the white people of the south, we suppose, a very embittered feeling against that portion of the country which had conquered them. We were in such a condition as a nation, as no other nation has ever been in. The condition of England toward Ireland, of Russia toward Poland, or of most conquered and oppressed countries toward those who conquered them, was mild in comparison with our own condition, and yet, in twenty years since the franchise of the negro, we have seen that whole southern region literally free from war, and measurably free from tumult and mob violence and outrages. I say measurably free, because there is a great deal recorded in the history of the past twenty years, and a great deal more will be recorded. We have seen this race possessing the land, quietly assuming its place in our political ocean, this great sea of political freedom, the one in which we float. We have seen them assume their place with less harm to themselves, and infinitely less harm to us, than most of us would have considered probable, and many of us would have considered possible, twenty years ago. When we look at this matter in this light, I do not think we will be very much disturbed at particular instances of violence—for instance, the attempted passage of the outrageous law in Georgia. It is a part of the providence of God to carry forward the education and elevation of the human race by broad movements, like the tide in the ocean, paying no particular regard to the eddies and bays here and there. My opinion is, from the history of the past twenty years, with the future of the American negro to be decided, that it will be done in a far shorter time than is considered possible in civilized countries generally.

Mrs. Hiles, of Wisconsin, gave an interesting and affecting account of the wrongs done to the Mission Indians of Southern California, whom she had personally visited and investigated their condition and sufferings. They have been reduced from 30,000 to 2,700, and many of them are literally starving in the desert, while syndicates of capitalists hold, contrary to law, the lands which the courts have said belong to the Indians.

But the speech of the evening, if not of the entire Conference, was made by Miss Alice C. Fletcher, of the Peabody Institute, a highly cultivated, scholarly woman, who devoted herself to the study of American ethnology and philology, and pursued it for many years. Finally, she decided to go among the Indians to live, and so to learn their language and become more intimately acquainted with their manners, ideas, and customs. She knew nothing of the Indian question, but learned it from the Indians themselves. She became their friend and champion. To her is due the passage of the act giving to them lands in severalty, and she is the agent of the government for the distribution of land under the act. She had just completed the distribution to the Omahas, and was now engaged in assigning lands to the Winnebagoes.

The closing address was by the Rev. Dr. Hill, of Oregon, who urged the importance of education as a means of civilizing the Indians.

FIFTH DAY—MONDAY.

Moral and Industrial Education.

After the appointment of a special committee to visit the Child's Hospital, the Standing Committee on Moral and Industrial Education reported, through its chairman, the Rev. Dr. Dana, who said :

The great question of the hour for those intent upon making the world better and saving the young from joining the great army of criminals,

is this of preventive work. "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," and while there is much that is heroic in the efforts we see made to rescue and reform wrong-doers, there is far more virtue and good sense shown in endeavors to prevent wrong-doing. In the downward path which leads to a criminal life, the first step is by far the most important, and just at this point is where the utmost effort should be expended. From my observation during my recent visit to England, I was impressed with the emphasis being put upon this sort of work. In the early part of our century the extent of juvenile criminality in Great Britain was something appalling. In 1816, when the population of London was under a million and a half, there were in its prisons alone 3,000 inmates under twenty, half of these were under seventeen, some were nine and ten, and 1,000 of these children, so to speak, were convicted of felony. Now with a population, in 1884, in England and Wales, of 27,000,000, there were at that date only 275 prisoners under sixteen, and 3,226 between sixteen and twenty-one. Eleven years after Howard published his "State of Prisons," the Philanthropic Society's Farm School, now located at Red Hill, Surrey, was founded, *i. e.*, 1788 or 1789. England's first prison reformatory was established at Parkhurst in the Isle of Wight, and in 1849 there were about 700 young persons confined therein; on December 31, 1864, only fifty-eight, when it closed, and since 1886 there have been no juveniles in any government convict establishment. I asked John Bright, when at Rochdale last June, whether he attributed the decrease of criminals in the United Kingdom solely to the superior prison system of his country. He said no, but rather to the increase of the agencies for securing a good education for the once neglected part of our population, as by the "board schools"; to the growing efficiency of the Sunday-schools; to Bands of Hope, orphanages, and all those institutions that preventive work has called into existence. Along these lines we can operate even far more successfully than heretofore. Immediately at the close of the Franco-German war, manual training was established in all the elementary schools of Paris and the larger provincial cities. Apprenticeship schools were also founded to supply the less general custom of apprenticeship, and provide a progressive system of workshop instruction, combined with an elementary literary education and extending over a period of three years. Pupils from these schools are competent at once to gain a living as carpenters, locksmiths, painters, designers, etc., and to enter one of the highest technical schools, now so numerous in France, to be trained as foremen, superintendents, or engineers. By thus fostering or encouraging the highest industrial and artistic capabilities of the masses of the working classes, France has measurably freed herself from the curse of pauperism. The Austrian government relieves distress among the peasant women and girls in a certain district, not by raising a fund to be doled out to them, but by furnishing instructions in designing and lace-making, in connection with the Vienna art school, to large numbers of this class. They returned home, became teachers of their friends and neighbors, and a marked improvement in the condition of the people ensued, and a new era of prosperity was by their own industry brought in. The poor were helped to help themselves, by augmented skill and opportunity.

The report of the New York Board of Education recommends the introduction into the school curriculum of carpenter-work or the use of wood-working tools for boys, modelling in clay for boys and girls, construction work in paper and pasteboard, and other suitable material for boys and girls, drawing to scale for boys and girls, sewing for girls, and also cooking. These branches they recommend to be taught in the regular grammar and primary school buildings, and time secured for them by certain exclusions from the studies now pursued in the various grades. In this way we will educate our youth to care for themselves and provide against their inability to earn their own livelihood. This accomplishes two things: it dignifies manual labor, and trains every youth in the rudiments, at least, of some industrial calling. That forestalls the inefficiency which is so often the occasion of pauperism and the provocation of crime. The disciplinary influence of such training all our foremost educators recognize, while the utilitarian aspects have long been evident. The influence of such an institution as the Wilson Industrial School of New York reaches a class of children else neglected, and through them have homes been transformed and the character of family life been altered for the better. It is the pushing of all schemes of moral and industrial education that is now demanded. Our modern philanthropy needs to become more and more instructive and comprehensive. We must not expend all our energies saving those who have fallen. We owe something to those who are on the edge of the precipice; something to those who by timely guidance and wise training we can fit for a moral and useful life. As philanthropists and reformers, we have much to do with all those agencies which promise to imbue the youth with noble ideas, and strengthen them to resist the influences calculated to lead them astray. Prisons are grand institutions and necessary, and we have yet much to learn in reference to how they shall be constructed and administered; but schools are grander, which deal with young life, before hopelessly warped and mastered by vicious propensities. The kindergartens, the kitchen-garden, industrial and technical schools are the best investments society can make. Life is too precious to be wasted, and those born to a lot of temptation and freighted from the start with every disadvantage call loudest for our sympathy and help, and it is in redeeming such that we lessen the criminal class and make useful members of society of those who else would have become pensioners on its charity, or the inmates of the penal institutions crime has made necessary, the support of which, too, is a growing burden on the party politic.

Child-Saving.

Mrs. Elizabeth J. Fairbanks, of Milwaukee, reported for the Standing Committee on Child-Saving Work. It was simply a word of introduction to the reading of the papers prepared at the request of the committee. The papers read were as follows:

"Child-Saving Work," by Mrs. Pierce, Matron of the Iowa Children's Home, at Davenport.

"Children of Shinbone Alley," by the Rev. Dr. Hill, of Oregon.

"Reclamation of Children," by Albert J. White, Superintendent of the Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus, Ohio.

"The Economy of the State in the Care of Neglected and Dependent Children," by Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, of Hartford, Connecticut.

"Homes for Children."

"On Teaching Sewing," by Miss Louise J. Kirkwood, of the Wilson Industrial School, New York.

The reading of these papers gave rise to a spirited debate.

Dr. Byers thought that there is not proper and sufficient discrimination between criminal and non-criminal children in dealing with them.

Mr. Skinner, who represents the Children's Aid Society, of New York, described its work. Continuing, he made an unfortunate reference to Mr. Elmore, whom he characterized as a "reformer reformed." His confession as to the failure of the Wisconsin Reform School to do any thing for its inmates was "good for the soul." The Children's Aid Society had no such admissions to make. He denied that it was sending out people to poison the whole country, and that they were becoming an army of tramps. He called on Mr. Hart, of Minnesota, as a witness to the contrary. Mr. Elmore had on another occasion said that this society had filled the prisons of Wisconsin. An agent was sent out by Mr. Brace to investigate the Wisconsin prisons and industrial schools. He took up case by case, and only found five or six reported as coming from New York, only two of whom could possibly have come from the Children's Aid Society.

Mr. Elmore replied that Mr. Skinner no doubt stated what he himself believed to be true; but Mr. Elmore knew it to be false. The investigation made by Mr. Brace's agent at the Wisconsin Industrial School consumed less than two hours, and the register contained the history of 2,100 inmates. Mr. Brace's children from New York have taught crimes that were unknown to the children of the rural districts through which they have been scattered. There is no adequate supervision of them after leaving them. The society had published in one newspaper an article for whose insertion it paid, branding himself and Mr. Giles, the President of the Conference, as liars; and when they requested the New York *Tribune* to insert a reply, they were informed that it could be done for fifty cents a line.

Mr. Hart thought that the society places children out, without sufficient investigation as to the character of the homes in which they are placed. The investigation by himself in Minnesota showed one fifth of the children doing badly and four fifths doing well; about ten per cent. were girls over twelve years old, of whom very few do well. He agreed with Mr. Elmore that there is a lack of proper supervision of the children placed out.

Mr. Storrs described the system of placing-out adopted by the State of Michigan. The shipment of eastern children to that State is a hindrance to success in finding homes for their own; and at the last session of the legislature a law was enacted providing for the same supervision by State officials of children from other States, as of those sent out from the State Public School at Coldwater.

Other speakers were: Mr. Johnson, of Chicago; Mrs. Dinsmoor, of Omaha; Mrs. Slaughter, of Lincoln; and Mr. Rosenau, of Buffalo. The gentleman last named gave an interesting description of Felix Adler's school in New York.

Immigration.

The afternoon session was held in the Opera House—the hall in the Exposition Building having proved too noisy for comfort. It was devoted to the report of the Standing Committee on Immigration,* as follows :

Since the report of the Committee on Immigration and Migration at St. Paul last year, the following statistics have become available. The number of immigrants arriving in the United States from foreign countries, except from Mexico and the Dominion of Canada, of which no record is authorized by the law of Congress, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, was 484,116, as against 328,895 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1886, it being an increase of 155,221. The recently improved facilities for bringing immigrants by the way of Canada, it is generally thought, has largely increased the number from this source, so that we deem it safe to estimate the entire immigrant arrivals in the United States during the year in round numbers, at about 600,000. Of those coming through United States ports, 106,559 were from Germany, 74,020 from England and Wales, and 68,130 from Ireland. We have no exact figures regarding the arrivals from other European countries, but Italy, Russia, and Austria are believed to have contributed quite largely, the first two considerably in excess of the average coming from these countries in former years.

The whole number of immigrants arriving in the United States during the first eight years of the present decade has been 4,362,143, or a yearly average of 545,268. The heaviest arrivals were in 1882, when the number reached 788.993, and the lightest in 1886, when they fell off, as before stated, to 328,895. It may be instructive, as well as serve the purposes of this report, to show the condition of some of the countries of Europe as respects its pauper and insane population, from which the immigration to this country largely comes.

Country.	Population.	Paupers.	Insane.
Great Britain . . .	35,026,108	1,017,000 = 1 to 34.5	112,700 = 1 to 310.8
Germany	45,234,061	1,310,000 = 1 to 34.5	108,100 = 1 to 419
Austro-Hungary . .	37,786,341	1,220,000 = 1 to 30 0	35,100 = 1 to 1.079
Italy	28,459,451	1,365,000 = 1 to 20.8	44,100 = 1 to 645

From these figures it is evident that immigration coming from countries so burdened with paupers and insane as these must bring with it large numbers of persons who, if not really paupers or insane, are at least on the verge of pauperism or insanity, and likely to fall upon the public for support and care immediately upon their arrival. We have been unable to secure any extended data as to criminals in the European institutions for this class, but from the best information at hand, and from the intimate relations of pauperism to crime, we believe their ratio to the population proportionately large.

The committee proceeds to give the history of attempts to regulate immigration, and a synopsis of the provisions of the United States Act of 1882. It states the objections to this act, and continues :

A bill was introduced in the last Congress, January 10, 1887, which seems likely to be fully considered and favorably passed upon by the next Congress. The following is a brief summary of the provisions of this bill in reference to the matters which we have here pointed out as defective in the act of 1882, and also as to its general provisions :

1. It places the execution of the laws relating to immigrants and the importation of alien or foreign laborers under contract, under the general control of the Secretary of the Treasury, and the immediate charge of commissioners appointed by, and the collectors of customs districts designated by him, instead of, as at present, under State and local boards, commissions, and officers.

2. It provides adequate penalties to be imposed in the Federal courts for bringing to and landing in the United States any alien convict, lunatic, idiot, or other persons liable to become a public charge, and compels their return at the expense of the ship, vessel, or other transportation line by which they were brought, to the country from which they came ; whereas, the act of 1882 imposes no penalty for its violation.

3. It also prohibits the landing of any person discharged from a foreign almshouse or house of correction in order to immigrate to this country, any person who is a citizen of any foreign country, and who, by the present laws of the United States, is interdicted from becoming a naturalized citizen thereof, and any person found to declare the intention of breaking any law of the United States, or any law of one of the United States, the landing of which classes is not interdicted by present statute.

4. Its provisions apply to railroad lines and other inland routes of travel, thus affording protection to the United States against the shipment of convicts, lunatics, and other helpless persons, by way of the Canadian and other exposed inland borders, while the present law gives protection only against shipments of these classes by sea-going lines.

5. It authorizes the return to their homes of destitute immigrants who shall have been over six months in the country, by the authorities of States, and provides for the reimbursement of the expense thus incurred out of the "immigrant fund" in the United States treasury ; whereas, under the present law the States have no remedy in this direction except at their own expense.

6. It provides for the certification and registration of all immigrants, before leaving their own country, by the United States consul of the port from which they shall embark, setting forth that the immigrant is neither a convict, lunatic, or otherwise enfeebled person, so as to be likely to become a public charge, while, under the present statute, there is no restriction whatever in this respect.

Dr. Hoyt followed the reading of the report by an extended address, of which we give an outline :

In the State of New York the proportion of its native-born inhabitants who were in poorhouses and almshouses, as in-door paupers, in 1886, was 1 to every 168 of its native population, while the proportion of those of foreign birth who were in these institutions in the course of the year was 1 to every 35 of its foroign-born population, the ratio being nearly five times greater than the ratio in the native population. We have no exact data as to the nativity of the out-door paupers relieved in the State during the year, but careful observation and the general testimony of the officers charged with the administration of this form of public relief leads to the belief that the disparity in the ratio of foreign-born to native paupers of this class to the population was even greater than that of its in-door paupers.

The number of insane committed to its various State hospitals for acute cases during 1886, coming mainly from the rural counties, was 1,248, of whom 868 were of native and 380 of foreign birth, it being an excess of nearly 42 per cent. in the ratio of the insane in the foreign-born population over the ratio of the insane arising from the native population. The ratio of foreign insane, as compared with the ratio of native insane, in the asylums of New York City, Kings and other counties with populous centres, is universally conceded to be much greater than in the State hospitals. A recent investigation into the New York City Lunatic Asylum on Ward's Island, devoted wholly to men, showed that its extremely crowded wards contained 1,916 patients, two thirds of whom, according to the sworn testimony of the medical superintendent, were of foreign birth, the ratio being more than three times greater than in the insane coming from the native population.

The whole number of convicts in the courts of New York during the year ending October 31, 1886, for all grades of offences, according to the report of the Secretary of State, was 89,601, of whom, proportionately, the foreign-born were nearly three times greater than the native-born, and the records of its prisons, penitentiaries, workhouses, and jails, also show an undue ratio of foreign- over native-born inmates.

The great disparity in the ratio of foreign-born convicts, paupers, and insane in the foreign population of New York compared with the ratio of the same classes coming from its native-born population, as shown by these figures, cannot satisfactorily be accounted for as the legitimate outcome of a voluntary and healthy immigration. In the early years of the country, under a more limited and proper immigration, no such disproportion in the ratio of these classes in the respective populations of the State was found to exist. The rapid increase of crime, pauperism, and insanity within its borders began with the great increase of late in immigration induced by social, political, and other disturbing conditions abroad, and by the increase of facilities conveniently and cheaply to reach our shores. The conviction, therefore, forces itself upon us that New York is being constantly and unduly burdened by the shipment of criminal, pauper, insane, and otherwise enfeebled persons to this country by different countries of Europe, for no other reason than to rid the several communities from which they are sent of their dangerous, troublesome, and expensive subjects. The evidence of this may be found in the British statutes running back for several years, in the records of its many so-called benevolent and immigrating aid-societies, in the proceedings of the numerous cantons, cities, and boroughs of most of the countries of Continental Europe, and in the testimony of the persons thus deported from their homes, the perusal of which, with details regarding individual and collective shipments of these classes, from time to time given to the public of this country by the press, cannot fail to convince even the most skeptical and exacting of their truth.

As a consequence, New York finds itself heavily taxed to meet the constantly and steadily increasing demands for its criminal, insane, vagrant, and pauper classes.

In view of these facts, it is not surprising that New York looks with grave apprehension upon the enormous tide of immigration to the country for the past few years, bringing annually over 500,000 foreign-born persons to our shores, a large proportion of whom come through its port, bearing upon its resistless flood many of the pauper, insane, criminal, vicious, and dangerous classes, in open hostility to its customs and laws, at war with society and honest labor, and who crowd its poorhouses, almshouses, asylums, prisons, penitentiaries, jails, and other institutions of charity, correction, and reform, and thus impose large public expense for their shelter, supervision, maintenance, and care, the burden of which is heavily felt in its yearly recurring assessments, tax levies, and collections. While it is the duty of the State suitably to provide for the insane, infirm, and helpless of its resident population, and properly deal with its criminal, vicious, and depraved classes, it equally becomes its duty to protect itself and society against the shipment of these classes

* This report is presented in abbreviated form for want of space.—Ed. Record.

within its borders from other communities and countries. It is in no sense true benevolence for individuals, communities, or the State, to assume charitable, criminal, or dangerous burdens legally incumbent upon others able to bear them, but, on the contrary, to insist upon their return to their rightful guardians, and the enforcement upon them of their proper supervision, maintenance, and care. The failure so to do tends to encourage the shiftless, idle, and vicious classes in constant and aimless changes, stimulates the shipment of charitable burdens from one community to another, engenders social disorder, pauperism, vice, and crime, and, at the same time, impairs individual responsibility and the responsibilities of communities and the State.

The history of our immigration laws and the nature of the present statutes and regulations affecting immigration, the needs of their revision and amendment, with suggestions and recommendations in relation thereto, have been so fully set forth in the report of the standing committee on alien paupers and criminals, already read before the Conference, that it is unnecessary to refer to them at length. The requirement of duplicate certificates of proper character, and setting forth their ability to provide for themselves, from all immigrants before debarking, from the authorities of the community in which they may reside, to be approved by our consuls and commercial agents abroad, would afford great protection to the country against the shipment of foreign criminals, lunatics, paupers, and numerous other helpless, vicious, and undesirable classes now surging in great numbers to our shores. At least, it would serve to trace the exact source of their shipment to us, and enable the government intelligently to enter its solemn protest against the practice, and demand, and, if need be, enforce its discontinuance by appropriate legislation or international treaties. The remedy against existing evils respecting immigration lies wholly in Congress, and to it alone can we look for relief and redress.

In conclusion, Dr. Hoyt said :

There is a strong and growing sentiment, not only in New York, but also in many of the other States, that our naturalization laws need revision and amendment, and that many of the evils resulting from the rapid increase in immigration of late may be thus greatly lessened, if not entirely cured. These laws have been in force over eighty years, with only slight amendments affecting the rights of children of foreign-born parents, and of aliens serving in and honorably discharged from the United States army and navy ; and, though they may have been properly adapted to the times in which they were projected, they can hardly be regarded as adequate to the present condition of the country, with its varied, expanded, and steadily accumulating foreign population. A residence of a foreigner of five years in the United States, and a declaration of his intention, three years previous, to become a citizen thereof, entitle him, under the statutes, to naturalization in the courts, with all the privileges and immunities of citizenship and the full governmental protection accorded to citizens of native birth. These laws were framed when immigration to the country was extremely limited ; when the time of passage occupied as many weeks as are now required days ; when the expense of the voyage was nearly, if not quite, ten times greater than at present ; and, consequently, when only the vigorous, industrious, and frugal, with the intention permanently to remain, could afford the outlay, and were willing to accept the privations and hardships incident to the undertaking. The conditions since then, however, have entirely changed ; the passage is so inexpensive and quickly and comfortably made that even the indolent and shiftless are tempted to leave their homes ; the criminal, vicious, and depraved, and those hostile to the customs and institutions of the country, stimulated by its inviting fields for their unlawful operations, rush in great numbers to our shores ; the dependent and the infirm struggle for places in the moving throng, in the hope of permanently enjoying the unrequited benefits of our almshouses, hospitals, and asylums, the extent and comfortable appliances of which have become well and favorably known abroad ; and gangs of imported paupers and servile laborers constantly swell the incoming stream to war upon, cheapen, and derange honest labor, and impair its dignity and character, by lowering its standard to their own debased and degraded level. It would seem clearly our duty, therefore, not only to protect the country, as far as possible, against these undesirable invading hordes, but to guard and protect its citizens, both native and adopted, through whose energies and industry its resources have been developed and brought out, in the maintenance of a higher and more honorable standard of acquired citizenship generally than can, under existing statutes and regulations, be secured. This can only be accomplished by a careful and thorough revision of our naturalization laws, and their adaptation to existing conditions, and to the numbers and character of the immigrants, many of them under the stimulus of European oppression, governmental, so-called benevolent, and individual aid, now surging with resistless force to our shores.

First.—The period of residence in the country before naturalization should be graduated, with a minimum of five and a maximum of ten or more years, preference being given to the head of a family, who shall maintain it practically intact, and secure to his children of suitable age proper training and culture in the educational institutions of the community in which he may reside.

Second.—Before full investment of citizenship, he should be required to furnish and file satisfactory evidence to the court, either by consular certificate or by other competent authority from his former home abroad, that before leaving his country he was neither a criminal, vagrant, nor pauper, nor in any way physically or mentally disabled so as to prevent his earning a livelihood, and that he was a reputable person in the community in which he resided, and obedient to the laws and customs of the country from which he came ; and, also, the testimony of two citizens, one of whom, at least, should be native, that his conduct since his arrival in the country has been proper and correct, that he is in sympathy with its institutions, and has been obedient to law and order, and that, in their belief, his allegiance will be faithful and permanent.

Third.—At the time of his investment with citizenship, he should be so educated as to be able to read the Constitution of the United States, the constitution of the State in which he may reside, and the oath of allegiance he may be called upon to take, and subscribe to the same with his own hand.

Fourth.—The conviction of a felony, or of voluntary, habitual pauperism or vagrancy, or of the barter and sale of his vote, should forfeit his citizenship, leaving him with only alien rights, without forfeiture of property acquired prior to conviction or prejudice of the rights of others in it by descent or otherwise, to be regained only by a further residence in the country equal to the period required for his naturalization, and satisfactory proof to the court of reformed and correct life.

Mr. Garrett said :

Except the North American Indians, some 250,000 in number, we are all either immigrants or of immigrant descent. Immigration has been the making of this country's population. Had not our fathers made Columbia the refuge of the oppressed and invited an exodus to the western world, and had they not handed down the precious legacy of this same hospitality to their sons, these States would not now enjoy their present wealth and prosperity. What was wise then, is wise yet. Not that there should not be prudent restrictions upon this influx, and progressive legislation to regulate it, as experience develops our needs. The spasmodic and often causeless interruptions to business by strikes, the infamous license of anarchists who have not the judgment to discriminate between a land of freedom and a land of despotism, and the prevalence of tramping and vagrancy, spring largely from an ignorant foreign element, of which we would be well rid. But the same and even a greater need than ever before exists for an extensive importation, continually, of workers to replace the thousands who yearly leave the wage class in a democratic country and become landlords or capitalists. I doubt if any large opposition will be found to this continued importation, outside of labor agitators, whose cue is to enhance the wages of labor by diminishing the supply of wage-workers. These men, from purely selfish motives, antagonize immigration ; and they would rather cause the downfall of the Republic than assist any movement, however much demanded by the common good, which does not promote their purpose. But so long as the population of this vast domain is scarcely greater than that on the small islands of Great Britain, so long as we need artisans, farmers, servants, and laborers, while America flourishes and finds employment for all industrious men and women who come to her, so long must we encourage every rill of good blood that flows into the national current.

The Act of 1882, designed to regulate immigration and prevent foreign nations from disgorging their worthless and injurious people upon our soil, nearly covers the ground as regards the classes excluded from landing at American ports. All convicts, idiots, insane persons, and comprehensively, *all who are likely to become a public charge*, are returned to the ports whence they came. I do not know what regulation could be made which would be more inclusive. There are others, whose inflammable heresies and dangerous doctrines render them equally an undesirable element, did the freedom of our institutions permit of the ostracism of any one on account of his opinions or the dissemination of them, when no personal wrong is done. Except, therefore, certain minor provisions of much utility, with which the Act could be amended, the objections lie against its administration, and not against the law itself.

New York is by far the largest port of arrival for immigrants, and the opposition to the present law emanates chiefly, as I believe, from that State. My own observation is limited to the small port of Philadelphia, at which arrived, in 1886, only one ——th of the number which landed at New York. The kind of people arriving is, however, much the same at the one as at the other, so that the experience at the smaller port is doubtless a fair criterion of that at the larger. Indeed, occasional interchange of correspondence with the New York Commissioners has shown that the same questions and the same difficulties present themselves at the two ports. Those who speak of the necessity of a thorough investigation of the case of each immigrant, as though no such investigation was made, or could be made under the present law, are surely not cognizant of all the facts, and do not realize the nature of the difficulties from personal contact with the subject. That there are differences in the administration of the law at different ports is certainly true, and would be true under any system. Perhaps this is best illustrated by the fact that in 1886, 185 persons were returned to the ports whence they came out of 23,101 arriving at Philadelphia, while 997 were returned out of a total of 379,537 arriving in the same year at New York, being 8 per cent. of the total arrivals in the case of Philadelphia, against 2.6 per cent. in that of New York. This would seem to indicate at least a stricter application of the terms of the law in the one case than in the other, if not a wiser. The difficulties are not such as would be surmounted by any remedy which, so far I know, has yet been proposed. Certainly they would not

by substituting for non-political, philanthropic boards salaried officials of the national government, chosen according to the usual political method commonly from among local politicians, and therefore liable to all the objections arising from minor local prejudices; moreover, salaried, and therefore perfunctory.

I am unable to see what kind of examination upon arrival could be made more thorough than those which have passed under my notice. It must be borne in mind that neither poverty, nor criminality, nor imbecility, nor even insanity, is always visible to the naked eye; that few of the immigrants are known to any one on board the ship prior to their sailing; that they are not anxious to convict themselves of any of these sins and be sent back whence they came; and that it is decidedly to the interest of the carrying company to establish their immunity from either of the causes of proscription and avoid carrying them back without compensation. The ships which convey immigrants are now usually large transatlantic steamships, and it is important to the interests of commerce that as few obstructions and detentions as possible should be put in the way of rapid unloading and reloading. It is their custom to accomplish the whole process in a few days; but an examination of 2,000 passengers which would consume two minutes each, would occupy about 70 hours, or 7 days of 10 hours.

But suppose a man brings money, and has the appearance of ability to work, what examiner would make the diagnosis in such a case that he would, within the year, be upon the hands of some parish in the interior, and yet it is just such cases as are continually turning up, with the outcry against commissioners of immigration that their examinations are too superficial, and their interests only those of their own port and State. I know, by close observation and experience, that at one port at least these charges are unfounded. Yet I also know that in many cases sickness in a new climate, difficulty in procuring steady employment, accident, and a great variety of causes throw immigrants upon the public for support unexpectedly after arrival. The rulings of the Treasury Department allow, however, the application of the head-money to the relief of such thus "falling into distress," as the Act says, within one year of the time of landing, and this timely aid, with advice and assistance in getting work, very generally sets them on their feet.

An unwarranted clamor is sometimes raised in cases where it is quite unjustified by the facts, and the unthinking or prejudiced jump at the conclusion that some gross carelessness, oversight, or intentional wrong has been perpetrated by the commissioners.

Among the passengers by the steamship *Scandinavian* from Glasgow, in May last, were eighty-three Irish immigrants, who were reported upon arrival to be all evicted tenants, assisted by the British Government to emigrate to the States. In consequence of the story, which had got into the public prints, the Commissioners detained them all till they could make the most thorough examination possible. They held a regular Court of Inquiry, placed the head of each family under oath, and cross-questioned them closely. This investigation showed that, while they all came from the same neighborhood, and had been given a passage to America and money besides by a certain man, who was the agent either of the government or of a landlord or landlords (they disclaimed knowledge of whom, and very possibly it *was* the British government), yet they were an unusually hearty, healthy, and intelligent lot, had none of them been evicted tenants, none of them been at a Paupers' Union, and were, almost from beginning to end, thrifty workingmen and women out of work through hard times. The fact that they had money was a positive benefit to the land to which they came, and where they got it mattered nothing, provided they were neither idiotic, insane, pauper, or criminal. Yet there was a popular outcry, emanating either from demagogues, unthinking men, or labor agitators, against landing these "assisted emigrants." While I do not doubt that there have been numerous cases of both paupers and criminals transported to America by foreign governments, in the past, yet under the existing law, as administered at the port with which I am acquainted, very few whom it would be possible to detect elude the vigilance of the examiners and land in this country.

It is difficult, let me repeat, for those who have never attempted the examination of a ship-load of immigrants, to realize the difficulties. How, for instance, by any examination, or by what unerring instinct, could any one of us, ignorant of the fact that there was a criminal on board, suspect that a certain one of a thousand passengers under review was a convict? By what subtle law is the line to be drawn between a poor person liable to become a public charge, and one who will succeed in supporting himself? What necromancy will reveal which of these able-bodied and hopeful men will fall a prey to disease, accident, and discouragement? Insanity is easier to detect than crime or pauperism, but every one who knows any thing of insanity has discovered that many of the most desperate cases are most difficult to detect. In short, it seems doubtful, considering the difficulties, whether any board now administering this law can be charged with gross carelessness or intentional neglect. True, serious errors have been committed by commissioners in construing the spirit and intention of the Immigration Act; and the Department at Washington has not been free from such errors. Yet, our remedy will not be found in a change of the present system, so much as in the removal of incompetent officials, and in supplementary enactments, embodying improvements in the law. The Act of 1882 is entitled "An Act to *regulate* immigration." It is not an act to impede, or limit or prevent immigration, and its terms imply the facilitation of it, by helping the distressed, and the rejection only of certain classes of people, who would be a burden on the community, financially. The simple point is, how are you clearly to distinguish these prohibited classes. Only one of the measures proposed commends itself as a thoroughly practical and effective proposition. That is, to require a consular certificate with each immigrant that he belongs to neither of the proscribed groups, and impose a severe penalty upon ships for every failure to produce the certificate. Even then, the efficiency of the exclusion will depend on the thoroughness of the consul's investigation, and at large ports of emigration, it would throw an amount of labor upon the consul, effectively to perform this duty, which is difficult to conceive, and which would perhaps be as impossible as its perfect performance by the immigration agents. And, when all is said and done, what is to prevent incessant and enormous leakage along the broad Canadian frontier?

The only other amendment of the present law which seems to me worth much consideration is one enlarging the prohibited class by including those whose avowed opinions are subversive of social order and government, and promotive of chaos and anarchy. Liberty of speech and of the press is a glorious doctrine, but has it not its limits? Defence of human rights against oppressive despotism is one thing, but opposition to all government, even free and democratic, is inadmissible, and the man who maintains such opposition thereby outlaws himself from human society. He can live alone, but not as part of a social and political system.

The true and living objection lies, not against the present provisions as to immigration, but against the present facilities for naturalization and franchise. In the early days of the Republic, when it was important to build up a strong and self-reliant nation as soon as possible, this ease of conversion into an American citizen was a shrewd and sagacious policy. But that need no longer exists, and it is now in the highest degree impolitic not only to absorb paupers and criminals, but a large part of those who come to our shores ignorant, if not of every thing, at least of our system of government, of our customs, and often of our language, and steeped in ideas of caste and monarchism, or else of chaos and anarchism, to the core. Is it not high time to change these laws, and admit to the elective franchise no man born and educated abroad, or, at the least, greatly extend the period required for naturalization? It would be consistent with this to establish an intermediate or probationary stage, say after five years' residence, when a foreigner, declaring his intention of permanently remaining in the country, might be accorded certain privileges of citizens, with protection and limited civil rights.

But let us beware of obstructing the flow of immigration, and freedom to employ and be employed in all lawful avocations. For the material prosperity of these States, it were better even that neither paupers nor criminals should be returned to the old world, than that the healthy influx of the bone and sinew of the body politic should be stopped. This would be a disaster of incalculable dimensions, that, within one generation, would seriously endanger the fabric of our institutions.

Mr. Sanborn said:

I will call the attention of the Conference to the great change which has taken place in the public opinion since this question first came before us in the Detroit conference in 1875. That was the year in which the supreme court issued that famous decision, declaring that the States were constitutionally incapable of restricting the introduction of immigrants within their own ports; that decision was made and is now the law of the land, and for seven years, from 1875 to 1882, the country was practically without any supervision or any restriction upon the introduction of immigrants, except such as the States could furnish under these laws which the supreme court had not declared unconstitutional. The only paper read in Detroit was by an eastern gentleman, who laid down a doctrine which was far more extreme than any placed before this assembly at that time, and, so far as I could judge, that opinion is supported by a majority of the people in that country. Eleven years have passed, and I apprehend the sentiment of the country has changed to a position very similar to that of Mr. Garrett. There are persons, large assemblies of men in different parts of the country, who desire immigration to be restricted, and the old theory in favor of unrestricted immigration has almost entirely ceased. Emigration from Europe to America, and particularly to the United States of America, is something that cannot be legislated or checked. It proceeds from natural causes, it is governed by natural laws, and the legislation of all the European governments does not seem able to prevent it, and I imagine that the legislation of the American government cannot prevent it.

Proper regulation of emigration is what we need. The check of emigration is a different thing from the proper regulation of it. I think we are getting practical measures which will secure that without impeding the volume of desirable emigrants to this country, and I think the measures proposed by Dr. Hoyt, when qualified by nature herself, will produce the result aimed at. I am in favor, at this time, of changing the supervision of emigrants arriving from the officers of the State to the officers of the nation, under the act of Congress of 1885. I agree that congressional legislation shall for the present place that whole matter in the hands of Federal officers. I agree to this, not because I believe that to be the best way, but we have a board at New York which stands in the way of any proper regulation of emigration. I refer to the Emigration Commission of New York, which is now under investigation of the Federal government, and where the government will disclose such errors and fraud that it will be apparent by all that some change must be made in that body.

The order for the evening session was the report of the Standing Committee on Insanity, which was presented by Dr. Richard Dewey, of Kankakee, Illinois. Before proceeding to it, the Conference received the report of the committee on

Time and Place of the Next Meeting,

which was, that Buffalo, N. Y., be the place, and that the time be left to the discretion of the executive committee. This was agreed to, but a motion was adopted, directing the executive committee, in view of the presidential election in 1888, to fix the term at as early a date in the year as possible.

Miss Dix.

Dr. Dewey offered a resolution of respect to the memory of Miss Dorothea L. Dix, the friend of the insane, which was adopted, after appreciative remarks by Messrs. Dewey, Sanborn, and Letchworth.

The Colony System for the Insane.

Dr. Knapp, of Lincoln, then read the paper prepared by Dr. Hurd, of Pontiac, on the Colony System of Caring for the Insane as proposed in Michigan. We omit this paper, since we hope to publish it in full in a future number, and an abstract of it would not do it justice. For the same reason we postpone our report of the discussion which followed.

Trained Attendants.

Dr. Dewey then read a paper on "Training-Schools for Attendants in Insane Hospitals," of which the following were the conclusions arrived at by him :

(1) The calling of an attendant in an asylum, like every other vocation in life, needs training and apprenticeship ; if there is any difference between that and other callings, it needs it more than the ordinary forms of service in public institutions. This is simply illustrated by the practical results of the present method, which is attended with considerable public dissatisfaction and marked by the occurrence from time to time of unfortunate cases of neglect or mistreatment, which are far more the result of ignorance than of any wrong intention on the part of asylum attendants.

(2) The training-school for attendants upon the insane, though in part an outgrowth of the training-schools for nurses, has an essentially different character,—requires much that a sick nurse does not need to know, while on the other hand much of the nurse's instruction would be thrown away on the asylum attendant.

(3) While the work of nursing the sick is peculiarly a woman's work, the proper care of the insane requires an equal number of trained attendants of each sex.

(4) The persons who are willing to engage in the care of the insane as attendants do not possess the education and previous mental training which would be desirable if attainable, and therefore their instruction must be of the most direct, plain, and simple character, commencing with elementary matters and reducing all subjects to their lowest terms of simplicity and clearness, and differing in this from much of the instruction that the picked classes of the nurses' training-schools can readily receive.

(5) A training-school for attendants is desirable in every institution for the insane, for the following reasons :

The care of the insane is a calling which demands skill and intelligence of a high order.

The average attainments of those who seek such employment are not of a high order, and need to be improved by every possible means.

Greater permanency of service and more experienced attendants will be secured by the training-schools.

An improvement will take place in the character of the persons who will seek such service.

The administration of institutions for the insane will be more satisfactory to the public, because more intelligent and more conscientious.

SIXTH DAY—TUESDAY.

The first business transacted was the adoption of the report of the committee on permanent organization, which we print elsewhere. Dr. Charles S. Hoyt was elected president, to succeed Mr. Giles.

Feeble-Minded Children.

The report of the standing committee on the Education of the Defective Classes was read by Dr. Powell, of Glenwood, Iowa. It related exclusively to the training and care of the feeble-minded.

A paper prepared by Mr. Mott, of the Minnesota Institute for Defectives, on the organization of institutions, and especially the relations, functions, and obligations of trustees, was read by Mr. Hart and criticised by Mr. Wines, who dissented from some of the positions taken by the writer.

Barwick Baker.

Mr. Letchworth, on behalf of the committee to report action respecting the death of T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of Gloucester, England, presented the following memorial, which was seconded by Messrs. Brinkerhoff, Wines, Garrett, and Dana, and ordered to be spread upon the records :

The members of this National Conference of Charities and Correction, conscious of the great loss the cause of charity and reform has sustained in the decease, since their last meeting, of T. Barwick Lloyd Baker, Esq., of Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, England, desire to place upon the records of this Conference some expression of their earnest sympathy in this mournful event.

We recall with much satisfaction the fact that, in the work of preceding conferences, Mr. Baker was deeply interested, and that his contributions, drawn from a large experience, opened new fields for profitable reflection. The large success attending the great measures of reform which Mr. Baker was instrumental in establishing in his own country has given wide reputation to the principles he advocated ; and to the extent to which they have been, and may be, incorporated in the correctional system of our own country, we wish to acknowledge the obligations he has laid upon us.

In Mr. Baker we recognized a co-worker possessing sound judgment and an intuitive perception of that which was practical and useful. We conceived him to be one who, while working in the line of pure benevolence, was inspired by the highest motives in all that he did. The example of one whose whole life was a prolonged effort to benefit mankind is precious to us ; and while deploring the loss of that wise counsel which can emanate only from a source so pure and disinterested, we take this opportunity to record our veneration for the memory of this noble philanthropist.

Mr. Letchworth, chairman of the committee, in presenting the memorial, added the following remarks :

In the subject of this memorial we find a rare character—one that can justly be appreciated only by personal acquaintance with the busy routine of his daily life. Here we behold a man possessed of large landed estates, having a handsome income, surrounded with all the accessories of luxurious and elegant living, keenly susceptible to the enjoyments of outward sense, and occupying a high social position, devoting his whole time to works of usefulness in which are involved patience—trying, never-ending details. In Mr. Baker we find the ideal, old-fashioned English squire, discharging his multitudinous duties conscientiously, mindful of his obligations to society, to the State, and to the Church.

With the opportunity of exclusively enjoying aristocratic associations, his hospitality was extended to the humblest as well as the highest engaged in philanthropic work ; and at Hardwicke Court he drew into friendly conference and co-operation those who desired to further the interests of humanity. To this may be largely attributed his success in projecting, if not establishing, some of the important movements of his time. He was the reputed founder of the British National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, a recognized reformer of the system of poor-law relief, and a leader in the reconstruction of the English prison system. He was active in the preliminary legislation necessary to the establishment of reformatory schools throughout England and Scotland, and one of the first to establish a reformatory school for boys, which he did on his own estate in Gloucestershire, and which is still in successful operation, having accomplished a vast amount of good at no slight pecuniary sacrifice to its original projector.

Americans consider themselves the busiest and hardest-worked people in the world. Let us see what a conscientious English country squire may take upon himself to do with business-like thoroughness. As a magistrate, Squire Baker attended regularly the courts of Quarter and Petty Sessions, looked after certain police matters, and, through the Highway Board, the ordering of bridges, the repair of highways, and other public business. As inspector of the county prison, he had occasional visits and reports to make thereon. He was chairman of the Board of the Pauper Lunatic Asylum of the county, and of the Barnwood Lunatic Asylum. He was a member of the Board of Guardians of the Poor, a member of the Local Board of Health, of the Hospital Committee of the Workhouse, a commissioner of taxes, a member of the School Board, treasurer of three parish schools, a manager in the savings bank, in the Artisan's Building Society, Secretary of the School of Art, committee-man in several provident and friendly societies, etc., etc. Besides discharging the manifold duties incumbent upon these varied offices, he found time, with the aid of his accomplished wife, to entertain most hospitably and delightfully a wide circle of friends. Mr.

Baker felt that whatever position one occupied in the world he could not escape the responsibility for the discharge of his obligations to the public, and that idleness in any position of life was inexcusable. In a letter written me in a trembling hand a short time before his death, he said: "You call me 'the old Squire,' as many do, and I am glad of it, for I like the title. It means properly one who, having sufficient private property to content himself without working for more, is able and willing to give much of his time and work (and some of his money) to benefit the public without pay. It is a useful and honorable and eminently happy position. . . . At the same time, we must allow that there is a grander character than the Squire. We who have inherited money and have no need to work for it are almost bound, not by law, but by conscience, to strive to do something to deserve it. But where a man of comparatively small means is working honorably and rightly in a bank or commercial business for pay which he requires, and yet finds time and thought and energy to do grand public unpaid work—this is noble indeed. Of such men America seems to have many."

In watching the public career of Mr. Baker one could not but note his earnest zeal coupled with modesty, his simple directness, his love of truth, his pure benevolence, and be filled with admiration of his many noble qualities. We fully see those gentle genial happy traits of character and these evidences of exalted virtue which caused all those who knew him in his home life, as I did, to love and revere him.

Homes for Working Girls.

Miss Schley, of St. Paul, was introduced to the audience, and gave an account of an apparently very successful home for working girls established by her in that city. She has 55 or 60 boarders, at two dollars and a half a week, which more than pays the expenses.

Police Organization.

At the afternoon session, Mr. A. O. Wright presented the report of the Standing Committee on Penal and Reformatory Institutions, of which we regret that we failed to procure a copy. A very full account was given of the police system of Milwaukee, in a paper by Col. F. J. Reis, Chief of Police of the city of Milwaukee. The most interesting portion of it related to the civil-service rules in force, and was as follows:

In this respect our department differs radically from nearly all others, inasmuch as we have all the essential features of civil-service reform incorporated in the laws governing appointments. This law, which went into effect July 1, 1885, creates a board of four commissioners, appointed by the mayor, and in order to make this board strictly non-partisan, it is provided that not more than two of the commissioners shall be of the same political party. This board prescribes rules for appointments and promotions. Under those rules, applicants for patrolman must not be less than 25 nor more than 35 years of age, at least five feet seven inches tall, must be citizens of the United States, must be able to speak the English language understandingly, and must have resided, at least three years immediately preceding the application, in the city of Milwaukee. Every application must be in the applicant's own handwriting, and state his age and place of birth, weight, chest measure, place of residence, occupation, schooling, how long the applicant has resided in the city, what trade he has learned, if any, and by whom employed the last three years. Applicants must also state what language, if any, besides the English, they can speak understandingly. Each application must be accompanied by the certificates of at least three reputable citizens, each certifying that he has been acquainted with the applicant for at least one year last past, and believes him to be of good moral character, of correct and orderly deportment, of temperate and industrious habits, and in all respects fit for the police service. As a safeguard against partisanship, it is provided that certificates signed by office-holders will not be considered. Every applicant must answer such questions and submit to such examination as to physical strength, capacity, and activity and also as to educational qualifications, as the board may deem necessary to ascertain his fitness for the service. The educational test consists of reading from print and manuscript, writing from memory the substance of matter communicated orally, arithmetic, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of whole numbers and decimals applied to United States money. They are also questioned about city government, location of streets, public buildings, and such other general matters as strangers in the city inquire about. They must also submit to a thorough medical examination by a surgeon appointed by the board. Those passing a satisfactory examination are then certified by the board as eligible as patrolmen, and after due inquiry and satisfactory evidence of their good charaeter, are appointed by the chief, subject to coufirmation by the board, as fast as vacancies occur. But the appointment is not yet final. For the first sixty days they are on probation only, and if, after two months of active duty, any one proves himself unfit for the service, he will be dropped from the force; if, however, they give satisfactory evidence of becoming good and competent officers, they are retained on the force so long as they perform their duties faithfully, and will only be discharged for neglect of duties, disobedience or other conduct unbecoming an officer.

Under the old system, previous to the enactment of the present law, all police officers were appointed for a term of one year only, and with every incoming new administration most of the officers had to "go," not because there were charges against them of any kind, but simply to make room for others who had to be provided for. All this is now changed, politics are absolutely banished from the force, and every man is compelled to stand on his own merits. This has had the effect to increase the efficiency of the department, the men well knowing and recognizing the fact that faithful service and good conduct are the only conditions upon which they are retained on the force. But the law holds out still further inducements to men who are true to their trust. All promotions to higher grades are made within the force. Here again, as in the case of patrolmen, the honors are bestowed upon those who, in connection with their record while in the service, are found by competitive examination to be the best qualified for the place. Under the rules governing promotions, the chief must give due notice of all examinations for promotion, and any officer who is eligible and who wishes to be a candidate for it, may notify the chief in writing of his wish, and the chief will make such provision as shall be necessary, so that the examination shall not interfere with the good of the service. The rules regulating promotions are as follows: Promotion to the position of roundsman will be made from patrolmen who have been in service not less than two years; promotion to the position of detective will be made from roundsmen and sergeants who have been in service not less than three years; promotion to the position of lieutenant will be made from detectives and sergeants; promotion to the position of captain will be made from lieutenants. The inspector is appointed by the chief, subject to confirmation by the board, while the chief is appointed by the board. Thus it will be seen that every precaution is taken to keep politics and favoritism out, and retain good officers in the department.

Indeterminate Sentence.

Mr. Wheeler, of Michigan, read a paper explaining the indeterminate sentence.

Gen. Brinkerhoff explained the working of the indeterminate law in Ohio.

Other remarks were made by other members.

The regular session was then adjourned in order to give opportunity for a conversational meeting upon the principles and methods of organized or associated charity, which was held at the request of many residents of Omaha interested in having a Charity Organization Society formed in that city. Mr. Kellogg occupied the Chair, and, in connection with Messrs. Johnson of Chicago, Rosenau of Buffalo, and Warner of Baltimore, answered the several questions put by the meeting.

Charity Organization.

The whole of the evening session was given to the Standing Committee on Charity Organization. The report was read by Mr. Chas. D. Kellogg, of New York, chairman, and is in substance as follows:

In order to exhibit the existing state of that recent specialty in charitable relief which aims at building up an organic unity of benevolent endeavor, this paper is restricted to a discussion of reports received from societies avowedly adopting the distinguishing characteristics of "Associated" or "Organized Charities." Of these the report of last year recognized fifty-two as affiliated by policy and correspondence, and this is the number now enrolled as in active association with each other. From the beginning of our systematizing movement the features in which it has characteristically expressed itself have been coöperation, registration, investigation, and conference; while in some localities material relief from funds at its disposal has been a deplored necessity, which must be reduced to a secondary incident of the work, or, better still, entirely abolished. All the societies distinctly accepting these methods have been asked to contribute reports on a uniform plan as the basis of this paper, and 34, or 65 per cent. of the whole number, have responded. Their exhibits have been tabulated in a schedule appended to this report.

In view of the universal and profound preoccupation of the public mind with financial and sordid conceptions of charity, it might have been expected that, in many localities, associations lifting our banner and using our phraseology would be formed, of which the promoters had not disengaged their ideas from definitions and principles discarded by genuine charity organizations. As a rule, societies so incongruously led have added no strength to our work of organization, but have rather beclouded and distorted the public judgment concerning it; while seldom have they maintained themselves as relief agencies. A few such wrecks lie along the road we have come, but fortunately they are rarer than reason would have predicted. Probably the reason why so few lapses from charity organization have occurred, is that the movement has extended by a process analogous to what physicians call infiltration. It spreads from a centre where it has established itself to another having some common element of sympathy or interest with the first. In other words, its growth is not sporadic, but by propagation, from one point to another. Emissaries from established organizations are invited by and sent to new localities to organize them into "Associated Charities";

and hence there has been a tradition and a genesis to give unity and uniformity in the growth of all our societies. Societies not thus in some degree propagated by us are seldom of us. Hence, if our principles are sound and worthy of dissemination, it is of utmost importance that all of our societies should conform in all distinctive features to a common standard and to uniform methods. Otherwise the types will change by translation until they are no longer recognizable as of one origin and spirit; and the cohesion and unity of our great reform will be irrecoverably lost.

At the present time, besides the 52 societies founded unequivocally to promote the organization of charities throughout the United States, there is one other of kindred character in Montreal, and 10 associations under our own flag definitely related to them in purpose, if not in strict form. Great Britain has 38 local branches in organic relations with the parent society in London, and 82 affiliated societies throughout the kingdom in active correspondence and coöperation with them. From these centres the movement has extended to 93 centres in Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia. There are, then, in the world 277 organizations at the present time, known to us as advocates in speech and practice of our principles. Their rapid extension in the United States is inspiring. In 1880 this type of effort was first recognized in the "National Conference of Charities and Correction," and accorded a distinct place among its constituent sections. Then there were but 12 associations of this character in the country. Five years ago there were 24, and the numerical gain has been 117 per cent. in the last half decade.

The 52 societies now in existence are located in municipal centres where more than 8,300,000 inhabitants are lodged. Thus they have hold upon one seventh of the entire population of the United States, and that portion the one where destitution assumes its most pitiable or its most dangerous phases.

The present report is concerned with 34 reporting societies, representing cities containing 7,308,000 people, the 18 societies not replying to our letters representing only 1,006,800, or less than one eighth of the total organized municipalities. It would add much to the value of these reports if they were equally well analyzed and complete in details.

Formal uniformity could be secured, if a standard analysis were generally adopted as the basis of records and reports. If all exchangeable documents were of a uniform size, and if the technical terms used in the classification of details not only were free from ambiguity but were universally used in the same sense. The dangers of embarrassing our work by too rigid systematizing, of barring the entrance of new experiments, and of substituting stereotyped perfunctoriness for free impulse, are at present remote; while the immediate results of the uniformity described would be these: New organizations would have a standard to guide them in their plans, the vital methods of our work would be more uniformly practised in every community, fewer capricious inroads would be made upon our system, changes would be made by conferences where a hearing could be given to all sides, the data upon which all those generalizations which are to guide our studies and practice would be more exactly given, comparison of results in different localities would be facilitated, records exchanged would be susceptible of uniform binding, easier reference, and better preservation, and the public would be more rapidly and accurately informed of the maxims and conlusions of charity organizationists. To reach results so desirable by expedients so simple fully justify systematic consultation of representatives from the various societies interested to prepare and recommend the requisite forms. Initial steps in this direction have already been inaugurated by the "Council of Charity Officers," a purely voluntary body, composed of the paid officers of the several charity organization societies of the country, which has undertaken the following experiments:

A *central registration* at Buffalo, N. Y., of all travelling mendicants and impostors, based upon reports from all affiliated societies in the United States;

The preparation of a *telegraphic code* for charitable inquiries;

The compilation of a *primer of organized charity* for educational use at new cenrres;

A plan to secure *uniform information* concerning methods and results from all kindred societies, as a basis for intelligent action upon the social problems which confront them;

An effort to introduce the *teaching of charity organization* principles and methods into high schools, colleges, and seminaries.

While the thirty-four reports upon which this paper is based differ in their completeness and modes of exhibiting facts, yet by retaining those the details of which can be grouped under some systematic classification, a series of results and percentages can be reached which show how far Charity Organization has taken hold of the problems it has chosen to attack, and what value attaches to its work. These thirty-four societies represent municipalities embracing one eighth of the population of the United States and probably one sixth of its entire pauperism. From several computations, so varied as to be a check each upon the other, it appears that the urban pauperism of the country is one to sixteen—that is, there is one applicant for the aid which lies outside of the natural offices of kindred and neighborhood in every sixteen of the population. If the rural statistics could be added probably the ratio would be very materially less. These thirty-four societies are, therefore, confronted by 456,000 paupers. They have treated with their own agencies and by their own methods 42,376 cases, and investigated 14,623 cases for corresponding or co-operating societies, institutions, and churches. The committee understand these 56,999 cases to mean 56,999 families which, at the estimate of the Census Bureau of 5 persons to each family, comprise 285,000 persons and constitute 62.5 per cent., or five eighths of the whole pauperism within the bounds of their operations. They further report that they have obtained co-operation with 66 per cent. of the voluntary charities for out-door relief in their localities, with 69 per cent. of those administering in-door relief in institutions, with 80 per cent. of the boards for distributing relief from taxation, with 45 per cent. of the churches, and with 50 per cent. of private beneficence. By this co-operation is to be understood that in such a percentage of instances where our societies have sought or desired it, co-operation has been accorded to them. The percentages represent the co-operation which has been promised and available in the prosecution of their work, rather than that which has been actually and fully used.

It is in registration that the relation of co-operation to the total pauperism of the cities is most distinctly seen. On this subject but sixteen societies have made report, eighteen passing it in silence, among which are the great towns of Brooklyn, Detroit, Indianapolis, Minneapolis, and Philadelphia. Doubtless in some instances the omissions have grown out of the defective methods of keeping records, and in any event, the proposal of registration to churches and older charitable enterprises, working on other principles than ours, seems to them to assail their independence and to imply defectiveness in their methods. Many times this species of correspondence is reluctantly and partially accorded, and here and there it is wholly refused. The failure to secure it is much to be regretted, for we have failed to take possession of the field, where a part of its pauperism is concealed from us. The societies reporting registration, however, represent 5,300,000 population. They have rendered or profited by this service with 60 per cent. of the voluntary societies for out-door relief, with 77 per cent. of the institutions for in-door relief, with 90 per cent. of municipal boards for dispensing public aid from taxation, with 19 per cent. of the churches, all within the limits of their respective fields. The relation of any society to private beneficence must always be a matter of mere conjecture; but our societies estimate no inconsiderable degree of service rendered to individual citizens wishing information to guide the distribution of their personal alms. In the foregoing statements the estimates of the reporting societies have been accepted as the basis of computation, and they present so favorable a showing as to excite the comment, "they are almost too good to be true."

The ground is surer under our feet, when we come to those reports which, dealing with the dependents, of whom they have taken sole charge, have analyzed them into distinctly characterized groups. There are twenty-five such reports available for our analysis, and they cover 27,970 cases, representing by safe conjecture 111,880 souls, and on them adjudication passed as follows:

Worthy of continuous relief, . . .	2,888	or 10.3	per centum.
Worthy of temporary relief, ...	7,451	" 26.6	"
Needing work rather than relief, . .	11,280	" 40.4	"
Unworthy of relief, ...	6,342	" 22.7	"
	27,961	100.0	

For several years past there has been a very close correspondence of published experience between Boston and New York, and in these cities the percentage of those needing work rather than relief has been 53.4, and of the unworthy 15.8. While they have found that employment was the proper relief for 53 in every 100 of their cases, the general experience has formed that opinion in only 40 of 100 cases; and while they have adjudged 16 in 100 to deserve police discipline, the aggregate of all reporting societies represents about 23 as requiring such treatment. On the other hand, there is a notable unity of opinion that only from 31 to 37 per cent., or say one third, of the cases actually treated were in need of that material assistance, for which no offices of friendly counsel or restraint could compensate. The logical application of this generalization to the whole country is that two thirds of its real or simulated destitution could be wiped out by a more perfect adjustment of the supply and demand for labor, and a more vigorous and enlightened police administration. Subsequent and wider experience may modify this conclusion, but hardly can wholly overturn it, and while it stands it is of highest significance in the solution of the poor-problem. It throws a flood of light upon the question, showing how far destitution is criminal, how far it is misfortune that may be made transient, and how far it is a permanent and genuine claim upon our humanity. To know this is to know the general lines to which our remedial efforts should be shaped.

A few remaining facts complete the exhibit of Charity Organization at the present time, to one or two of which return will be made for brief comment. Sixteen societies are still dispensing relief directly to their beneficiaries, although four of them claim to restrict it to emergencies too urgent for other recourse, and two to payment for labor performed. The ten which relieve without restriction reach less than one fourth of the populations among which our organization has taken root. In the judgment of your committee they would be truer exponents of Charity Organization purposes if they took the earliest opportunity to abandon wholly the distribution of every form of alms. By so doing they would clear from their paths many an obstruction, for they would cease to excite the jealousy of purely relief associations to which they now make themselves rivals, and they would present to their own members and agents a clearer and simpler conception of their dominant aim. Their dispensation of alms confuses and distracts the public mind, already

entangled in conceptions of charity almost exactly antagonistic to those of the Charity Organizationists, and the good we desire cannot be achieved by it while it reinforces the evils we deplore. Sixteen of the reporting societies have district or ward branches under their control, and eighteen maintain conferences with more or less frequency for the amplest consultation of the workers one with another and for the exchange of experiences. In New York the society regards such conferences most desirable, but owing to the newness, magnitude, and complexity of its work it has not as yet been able to establish them. Newark alone reports disappointment with them; fifteen others regard them as successful, of which Philadelphia rejoices in their educational value, Indianapolis regards them as "of the greatest importance," Brooklyn declares them "indispensable," and Boston says they are "one of the most essential features of our system, and tend to create a unity of aims and methods in those who attend."

Thirty societies report the maintenance of 168 paid officers and agents, a number made requisite by the numerous branch or subordinate district organizations in such large cities as Baltimore, Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Cincinnati, New York, and Philadelphia. If these branch organizations were counted as distinct societies, and many of them are responsible for districts as populous as Newport, Binghamton, and even Bridgeport, Conn., Columbus, O., and Syracuse, our roll of Charity Organization societies in the United States would enumerate more than a hundred of them.

Twenty-eight societies believe that they have made distinct gains in the past year, which are shown by better financial support, by increase in co-operative services, by juster popular comprehension of their purposes, by the enlargements of their field and a higher grade of duty done, and by perceptible reductions in the mendicant ranks. Twenty societies believe the municipal systems of relief with which they are in juxtaposition have improved, and Buffalo, which from the outstart gained a strong influence over the distribution of civic relief, has held her own in that respect, and can look for but little more than the anticipated abolition of out-door aid by the city. Three thousand and sixty-four frauds have been recorded as suppressed or exposed.

Letters are often received by the older societies asking how the methods and principles of Charity Organization can be applied in small communities where the benevolent impulse is strong and the applicants of relief are increasing. This inquiry will be lucidly answered by the paper by Mrs. Chas. R. Lowell of the New York State Board of Charities, which this committee will have the honor to present.

Friendly Visitors.—The right arm of aggressive work is the corps of Friendly Visitors. There is little exaggeration in saying that all the administrative work of our societies, and all their labor to systematize and co-ordinate the multitudinous charities of the country, are undertaken to clear the field for such influences and offices as characterize the work of the Friendly Visitors. A goodly brigade of them are now in the field. Twenty-eight societies enjoy the unpaid services of 3,228 of them. The lowest in rank has but one visitor to each 36,666 of the population, which is one for each 2,292 of the apparent paupers of the city. If the actual cases treated were divided equally among this corps of visitors each would have 164 families to supervise and befriend. Salem, N. J., has one visitor for each 190 of her citizens, while Taunton, Mass., has one for every 1 4-10 beneficiary family. These are the extremes embraced in our records. Eleven societies, among which Boston alone of all the large cities takes a place, have a visitor for every 6 or less of the cases with which they have charged themselves. Brooklyn has one for 8 beneficiaries.

A few words may well be spared to emphasize the inestimable importance of extending the system of Friendly Visiting. To show what remedial grasp our organization has actually taken upon the problem of dependent or simulated destitution, a computation has been made which shows that in 28 cities one Friendly Visitor is at work for every 3,487 inhabitants. This would consign to his or her charge 215 dependents, if this system had taken control of the entire town pauperism. Taking into account only the actual recipients of the care of our organization in these cities, there was but one visitor for each 24 dependent families,—a duty far beyond the capacity of the most vigorous, judicious, and zealous person satisfactorily to perform. The Boston standard is as high as an efficient system ought to go, and there one visitor is in service for every 5 immediate beneficiaries of the Associated Charities society. To reach the whole pauperism of the 52 localities where our societies are established as thoroughly as in the case of Boston, the present list of 3,228 visitors should be extended thirty-two fold, and our brigade should grow into a grand army of 103,750 visitors. That is only one volunteer for 80 inhabitants, or one person out of every 16 families. Who can describe the sweetness and order and light which would surge like a tidal wave through those 52 cities, flooding every part thereof at the tread through their streets of a hundred thousand strong of pitying, rescuing American men and women?

But two further points remain to be recounted by your committee to complete the presentation of facts which it has gathered, and they both tend to reinforce the plea for more Friendly Visitors.

Families Made Self-Supporting.—It has been a Charity Organization maxim from the beginning that the true test of efficient relief was not to be sought in the amount of money given away, or in the large number of those from whom it was disbursed, but in the number permanently removed from the list of dependents by placing them upon their own natural resources. This result must for the most part be achieved by Friendly Visitors, either men or women. In other words, the kind of duty which is devolved upon them is indispensable in putting a broken or fallen family again upon its own feet. To them may be attributed most of what has been accomplished thus far in this direction. Twenty societies report for the last year 3,342 cases of transfer from dependence upon charity to self-maintenance. According to Mr. Edward Atkinson's latest standard of what is necessary to the subsistence of a laborer's family, which is $546 a year, this translation from unproductive conditions to self-support would add $1,800,000 to the income of the country annually. Let it be noted that only one society reporting no Friendly Visitor returned any restorations to independence, while almost uniformly the greatest number of restorations go hand in hand with the greatest ratio of visitors to beneficiaries, and hence the economic result just given may fairly be put to the credit of the Friendly Visiting system.

Those who examine the tabular exhibit appended to this paper may observe that the proportion of Friendly Visitors and of families rendered self-supporting to the number of cases treated is, with one or two exceptions, conspicuously greater in the small than in the large towns. The phenomenon is instructive and intelligible. The smaller the community, the more thoroughly do the same social forces penetrate all through it. In the great cities there is, in a local sense, practically no neighborhood. The classes which wealth and poverty and occupation make have drifted apart, and are more monotonously uniform. The merchants' clerks, and, much more, the manufacturers' hands, live in opposite directions from their employers, and their lives only touch in the store and the shop. Social circles are based upon some community in fashion, or riches, or business, or church relations, without the slightest regard to locality of residence. One's friends may be scattered over a wide area, while one has no knowledge of the family within the next door. Nowhere else are a man's circle of acquaintance more monotonously graded; nowhere else can a man be so sequestered and lonesome as in a great city. Moreover, the surface and rapid transit of great cities distributes population according to wealth, and the poorer stratum is in one district, the middle classes in another, and the rich upon some Beacon or Murray Hill. There is no solvent of social ties like urban life. It is not so in rural towns. There the interest of the whole community can be concentrated on a single aim; there neighborhood means acquaintance; there the word of counsel, of cheer, of admonition is preceded by years of friendliness. Men speak of each other's affairs with fuller knowledge and discernment. Hence it is that the problem of calling Friendly Visitors into the field is easier in rural than in metropolitan communities; hence the depressed are more susceptible to neighborly offices and accessible to the opinions of those in other circumstances than theirs. Where the varied social forces of a community play most freely through all its divisions, there the problem of pauperism is easiest of solution. This is what our 34 reports are distinctly teaching us. Hence comes the inference, sharp and clear,—the inference already often drawn from thousands of experiences, in hundreds of localities, and through a dozen generations, that the cure of pauperism is a social question. It is not one of alms, nor of a redistribution of wealth, but of genuine neighborhood. Neighborliness must be established as a feature of civic life. The Samaritan must be found who will rescue the man who has fallen among the thieves of misfortune, of oppression, of temptation, and of penury. Lo, that Samaritan is found, and is on the way to the half-dead and despoiled. He is the Friendly Visitor.

The committee submitted with its report four other papers, as follows:

How to Adapt Charity Organization Methods to Small Communities, by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, of New York.

The Savings Society, by Mrs. John H. Scribner, of New Brighton, Staten Island, N. Y.

The Theory and Value of Friendly Visiting, by Mrs. James J. Putnam, of Boston.

How to Get and Keep Visitors, by Miss Zilpha D. Smith, of Boston.

The discussion elicited by these papers was of interest; especially the remarks by Very Rev. Dean Hart, who gave an account of the origin of the London Charity Organization Society, with which he had the honor to be connected as one of its principal founders.

Closing Exercises.

Capt. Shurtleff, of Boston, moved the adoption of the usual complimentary resolutions of thanks for courtesies received, which were heartily and unanimously agreed to. Messrs. Wines and Byers made the parting speeches, after which the president-elect, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, was introduced, and in a few words expressed his sense of the honor done him, and his hope to meet the wishes and expectations of the Conference, which thereupon adjourned *sine die*.

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Committee on Reports from States:

W. H. Neff, Cincinnati, Ohio, Chairman, with the State Corresponding Secretaries.

On the Care and Disposal of Dependent Children:

Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D., St. Paul. Minn.; W. P. Letchworth, Portageville, N. Y.; Mrs. James C. Biddle, Philadelphia, Pa.; C. D. Randall, Cold Water, Mich.; Allen D. Rusk, Viroqua, Wis.; Miss S. E. Minton, New York; Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, Springfield, Mass.; Mrs. Lucretia V. Gorgas, Defiance, O.

On Municipal Charities and Correction:

Seth Low, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, New York; Edmund J. James, Philadelphia, Pa.; Fred. H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; Hollis M. Blackstone, Bridgewater, Mass.; Julius Dexter, Cincinnati, O.

On Out-Door Relief:

George E. McGonegal, Rochester, N. Y.; H. S. Shurtleff, Boston, Mass.; Rev. C. G. Trusdell, Chicago, Ill.; Henry M. Boyce, Scranton, Pa.; C. J. Bonaparte, Baltimore, Md.; George W. Wightman, Providence, R. I.; John J. Wheeler, East Saginaw, Mich.; Lucien Moss, Philadelphia, Pa.; R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, O.

On the Commitment and Detention of the Insane:

Dr. Stephen Smith, New York; Fred. H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; A. O. Wright, Madison. Wis.; Henry M. Hoyt, Philadelphia, Pa.; Richard Gundry, M.D., Catonsville, Md.; F. B. Sanborn, Boston, Mass.; M. D. Follett, Columbus, O.

On the Care and Treatment of the Insane:

A. B. Richardson, M.D., Athens, O.; J. B. Andrews, M.D., Buffalo, N. Y.; J. P. Bancroft, M.D., Concord, N. H; Alice Bennett, M.D., Norristown, Pa.; P. P. Bryce, M.D., Tuscaloosa, Ala.; C. I. Fisher, M.D., Tewksbury, Mass.; W. B. Fletcher, M.D., Indianapolis, Ind.; Jennie McCowen, M.D., Davenport, Ia.; J. B. Bowers, M.D., Rochester, Minn.; O. W. Archibald, M.D., Jamestown, Dak.

On the Training and Care of the Feeble-Minded:

G. A. Doren, M.D., Columbus, O.; I. N. Kerlin, M.D., Media, Pa.; G. H. Knight, M.D., Lakeville, Conn.; J. C. Carson, M.D., Syracuse, N. Y.; C. T. Wilbur, M.D., Kalamazoo, Mich.; D. C. Bell, Minneapolis, Minn.

On Immigration:

Philip C. Garrett, Philadelphia, Pa.; J. H. Van Antwerp, Albany, N. Y.; Rev. Myron W. Reed, Denver, Col.; C. S. Stebbins, Omaha, Neb.; H. H. Giles, Madison, Wis.

On Industrial Training in Juvenile Reformatories:

Levi S. Fulton, Rochester, N. Y.; J. D. Scouller, M.D., Pontiac, Ill.; J. W. Brown, St. Paul, Minn.; T. J. Charlton, Plainfield, Ind.; P. Caldwell, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. S. L. Fuller, Adrian, Mich.; James V. Watson, Philadelphia, Pa.; George E. Howe. M.D., Meriden, Conn.; C. E. Gower, Lansing, Mich.; W. H. Sleep, Waukesha, Wis.; Henry Oliver, Cincinnati, O.; John T. Mallalieu, Kearney, Neb.

On Reformation as an End in Prison Discipline:

Fred. H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; Z. R. Brockway, Elmira, N. Y.; Rev. A. G. Byers, Columbus, O.; Gardiner Tufts, Concord, Mass.; Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.; Henry B. Tyler, Philadelphia, Pa.; Joseph Nicholson, Detroit, Mich.; F. S. Dodge, Concord, N. H.

On Charity Organization:

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Boston, Mass.; E. O. Randall, Columbus, O.; J. A. Gillespie, Omaha, Neb.; W. A. Johnson, Chicago; C. D. Kellogg, New York; Miss Anna Hallowell, Philadelphia; George B. Buzelle, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Catharine B. Lewis, Buffalo, N. Y.

PRISON LABOR IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The Massachusetts legislature enacted a law, which was approved June 16th, relating to the labor of prisoners, which provides that no contract shall hereafter be made for the labor of prisoners confined in the State prison, reformatories, or any of the houses of correction, but all such labor must be on public account. No new machinery to be propelled by other than hand or foot power shall be used in any such institution. The number of prisoners employed in a single industry at the same time, in any institution, shall not exceed one twentieth of the number of persons employed in such industry in the State, according to the classification given in the last census preceding such employment, unless such number is necessary to produce materials to be supplied in the State and county institutions, *provided*, that county institutions now doing business on public account may continue such industries as are now maintained therein, but not more than 250 prisoners shall be employed in any one industry at the same time. The governor shall appoint a general superintendent of prisons, whose duty it is to enforce the provisions of the act. This superintendent is to cause to be manufactured, as far as may be, in the State prison, reformatories, and houses of correction such articles as are in common use in the several State and county institutions. All terminable existing contracts are to be terminated by giving, within ninety days after the confirmation of the said general superintendent, the notice provided for in the contract. The act will take effect on the first day of November next.

NATIONAL CONVENTION ON PRISON LABOR.

The Massachusetts legislature further adopted the following important joint resolution:

Whereas, The question of the abolition of the contract convict system of labor, and the substitution of some other system in its place, is now and has been for some time agitating the several States, and

Whereas, But slight relief will ensue to our manufacturers and workingmen in the abolition of the contract system in one State if continued in another, and

Whereas, The best interests of the several States demand uniformity in respect to prison labor legislation, be it

Resolved, That the governor is hereby authorized to coöperate with such other States as may join, in calling a convention to meet at some place to be designated by them, to consider the advisability of recommending to their respective States a uniform system of conducting the labor of their convicts, and that the governor is authorized to appoint some suitable person to act as a delegate to such convention, such delegate to be paid his actual travelling expenses.

HABITUAL CRIMINALS.

The following is the text of an act recently passed by the Legislative of Massachusetts:

SECTION 1. Whoever has been twice convicted of crime, sentenced and committed to prison, in this or any other State, or once in this and once at least in any other State, for terms of not less than three years each, shall, upon conviction of a felony committed in this State after the passage of this act, be deemed to be an habitual criminal, and shall be punished by imprisonment in the State prison for twenty-five years: *provided, however*, that if the person so convicted shall show to the satisfaction of the court before which such conviction was had, that he was released from imprisonment upon either of said sentences, upon a pardon granted on the ground that he was innocent, such conviction and sentence shall not be considered as such under this act.

SEC. 2. When it shall appear to the governor and council that any person sentenced to the State prison as an habitual criminal has reformed, they may issue to him a permit to be at liberty during the remainder of his term of sentence, upon such conditions as they deem best, and they may revoke said permit at any time previous to its expiration. The violation by the holder of a permit, granted as aforesaid, of any of the terms or conditions of such permit, or the violation of any of the laws of this commonwealth, shall of itself make void said permit.

SEC. 3. When any permit granted under the provisions of the preceding section has been revoked, or has become void as aforesaid, the governor shall issue his warrant authorizing the arrest of the holder of said permit and his return to said State prison. Said warrant may be served by any officer authorized to serve criminal process in any county in this commonwealth. The holder of said permit, when returned to said State prison as aforesaid, shall be detained therein according to the terms of his original sentence, and in computing the period of his confinement the time between his release upon said permit and his return to the State prison shall not be taken to be any part of the term of the sentence.

We acknowledge our indebtedness for a copy of the foregoing statute to Mr. Clement K. Fay, of Boston, one of the Commissioners of Prisons.

The *Journal of Mental Science* for July publishes an article, by Dr. J. G. Kiernan, on "American Problems in Psychiatry," illustrated by a study of Cook county insanity statistics. It is a strange mixture of truth and exaggeration, or misstatement, and characteristic of its author. It is a matter of regret to us, as we presume it will be to the neurologists of the United States generally, that the Cook County Hospital, which has been managed by a committee of the county board, of which several of the members and the warden of this hospital appointed by that committee are under indictment for corruption in office, should have been selected as a typical American institution, to be held up to the view of English readers in the year which witnesses the meeting of the International Medical Congress in our national capital. The degree of conscientious adhesion to truth exhibited by Dr. Kiernan in his allegations may be judged by his quotations, as where he represents the Illinois commissioners, for instance, as having said that "Dr. Spray deserves credit for having *entirely* dispensed with the use of restraint," when they said "*almost* entirely"; or where he charges that "the Illinois county insane are to-day chained, naked, and filthy, in dungeons with only an opening in the door-top for air, light, and heat, through which food is pitched as to a dog," giving the State Board of Charities as his authority. This charge, which was never true of the insane of Illinois as a class, but only in exceptional instances, is not true "to-day" of any insane man or woman in any county poorhouse in the State. But the subject deserves no further notice at our hands. His slurs upon the Illinois Board of Charities were fully refuted in our issue of July, 1886.

CROWDED OUT.

Owing to the extended account given of the Conference of Charities at Omaha, last month, much interesting matter prepared for the present number of the RECORD has been laid over for future use, including the conclusion of the "Red Flower of the Madman," and the four papers submitted by the Committee on Charity Organization, already in type. Our next number will deal largely with the Prison Congress at Toronto.

By a vote of the Conference, the INTERNATIONAL RECORD has been made its official organ, and we hope for a large addition to our subscription list as the immediate result of this action, for which we are duly grateful.

Things are what they are; and their consequences will be what they will be. Why, then, should we wish to be deceived?—BISHOP BUTLER.

PLED.—It was only on reading Mr. R. L. Stevenson's clever "New Arabian Nights" for the third time that I noticed his use of "pled" as the past tense of "plead." "Pled" is so unusual that I am curious to know where the author of "Treasure Island" finds his authority for such a verbal form. "Lead" makes "led" of course, but it is never safe to trust to analogy in our language. For, if we did, "knead" would make "kned" and "read" "red."—*London Figaro.*